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Principal Response to Title III: A Narrative Inquiry of the Agency and Support of English Learner Education

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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Byron Ashley Booker entitled "Principal Response to Title III: A Narrative Inquiry of the Agency and Support of English Learner Education." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Educational Administration.

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Principal Response to Title III:

A Narrative Inquiry of the Agency and Support of English Learner Education

A Dissertation Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

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Dedication

For Heidi, my wife –

Completion of my dissertation was possible because of your unwavering love and support. You loved me when I was unlovable, inspired me when I was unmotivated, and pushed me when I was immoveable. You sacrificed so I could live this dream. You placed on hold your time, your activities, your goals, your dreams, your ideas, and your travel. Our shared compassion for supporting the education of English Learners and their families has been central to our life's work. Here's to the next journey and your turn to drive. I love you, H.

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I recall sitting in your Academic Writing class in week two when you asked for my dissertation topic. “What? You’ve got to be kidding me. Week two and she just expects me to know already what I am going to study.” Those were my more pleasant thoughts appropriate for publication. But I listened to you each week inquire about my stress level. I focused on your expertise in Leadership Forum, how you presented research with surgical precision and detail. I embraced your wise counsel. I gradually accepted your belief in my abilities rather than grapple with my inadequacies and limitations. I knew successful completion of this dissertation study was contingent upon your advice, patience, and scholarship. I am indebted with absolute gratitude and appreciation to you, Dr. Angelle, for challenging me to think critically, to write continuously, and to never give up. You certainly had reason to give up on me. Thank you for staying the course, my Captain.

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Abstract

The passage of Title III under No Child Left Behind of 2001 established new accountability mandates to meet the educational needs of English Learners, but refrained from prescription of how school principals should implement those policies (Cummins, 2012; Cummins, 2011; Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2010; Menken, 2009; Wright & Pu, 2005; Kindler, 2002; Bainbridge & Lasley, 2000; Walqui, 2000; Reyes, Scribner, & Scribner, 1999). Understanding the role of school principals is paramount to address the disconnect between federal policy making and local implementation particularly in pre-emerging gateway states for immigration where the growth of the English Learner population has exceeded 200% since 2000. The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of Title III on the agency of school principals to support English Learner education.

A qualitative narrative inquiry was employed to tell the story of four school principals who served in administration before and after the passage of Title III. Three themes emerged through data collection: Exigency for English Learners, availability of resources, and student outcomes. Stryker's Role Identity offered a lens to examine the combination of what the school principal knows, that is, the interpretation of Title III mandates with the pedagogy the school principal employs to implement those mandates. The study found school principals face challenges to comply with federal policy mandates for English Learners, and lack appropriate preparation germane to English Learner education. Implications for school principals, district personnel, and policymakers regarding English Learner accountability were also discussed. Recommendations for future studies were proposed.

Keywords: English Learners, No Child Left Behind, Title III, school principals, accountability

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Five million school-aged children in America's public schools are identified as English Learners (Berg, Petron, & Greybeck, 2012; Tanenbaum, Boyle, Soga, LeFloch, Golden, Petroccia, Toplitz, & Taylor, 2012). An English Learner is any limited English proficient student whose language first learned, language spoken most often, and/or language spoken in the home is a language other than English (No Child Left Behind, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002). In America's public schools, English Learners collectively speak 400 languages, with over half of these students speaking Spanish as their primary or first language (Coady, Hamann, Harrington, Pacheco, Pho, & Yedlin, 2003; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007; Tanenbaum et al., 2012; Wiley & Wright, 2004). For these students, English may be the second, third, or fourth language learned. Limited proficiency in English is one factor cited as the primary reason why English Learners underachieve in public school (Crawford, 2004; Government Accountability Office, 2006; Gandara & Baca, 2008; Goldenberg, 2008; Hakuta, 2011; Koyama, 2004; Menken, 2009; Thomas & Collier, 2004; Wiley & Wright, 2004; Willner, Rivera, & Acosta, 2008). English Learners struggle to communicate fluently and learn effectively in the target language of English (Cummins, 1994, 2000, 2011, 2012; Hakuta, 2011; Goldenberg, 2008; Menken, 2009; Thomas & Collier, 2002). The mandate to meet the educational needs of English Learners has been addressed through judicial decisions and federal legislation, more recently through the passage of Title III under the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (Berg et al., 2012; Brooks, Adams, & Morita-Mullaney, 2010).

All provisions for the public education of English Learners originated in two landmark legislative acts, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act

of 1965. These legislative acts mandated schools provide equitable access to education for all learners, and that this access was to be extended to English Learners. Equitable access to education required schools to address the individual needs of English Learners. A universal one size fits all approach to education would not adequately meet the needs of English Learners as described in these two legislative acts (Coady et al., 2003; Datnow, 2002; Datnow & Castellano, 2000; DeCapua, Smathers, & Tang, 2007). Thus, equitable access as prescribed in the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 meant all English Learners were to receive instruction by qualified staff and be tested for English proficiency. The legislation stipulated that parents of English Learners were to receive all school information in a language they understood (Civil Rights Act, 1964; Elementary and Secondary Education Act; 1965). Schools were prohibited from segregating students based on language (Civil Rights Act, 1964; Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965). Likewise, the courts upheld identical treatment was not equal treatment as related to the education of English Learners (*Lau v Nichols*, 1974). While these legislative acts set parameters for testing, communication, and instruction of English Learners, how to effectively meet these needs was left to the discretion of school principals.

Subsequent judicial decisions in *Castenada v Pickard* (1981) and *Plyler v. Doe* (1982) addressed equitable and appropriate curriculum and instruction based on specific needs of English Learners. The court ruled schools could no longer discriminate against English Learners through the use of ethnicity and language proficiency as criteria for ability grouping strategies in the classroom. From this ruling, the court established a three-part test to evaluate the adequacy of instruction for English learners based on theory, practice, and results (*Castenada v. Pickard*, 1981). The three-part test mandated school principals implement a plan based on sound

educational theory, put it into practice with appropriate funding and personnel, and evaluate the plan based on student outcomes (*Castenada v. Pickard*, 1981; Wiley & Wright, 2004). In *Plyler v. Doe* (1982) the Court ruled a free and public education was to be extended to any English Learner regardless of immigrant status.

Moreover, these legislative acts and judicial decisions required school principals to personalize instruction to meet the diverse learning needs of English Learners (deJong, 2013; deJong & Harper, 2005; Hakuta, 2011; Kendall, 2006; Menken, 2009). While the responsibility to implement this plan for instruction belonged to the schools, particularly the school principal, neither the courts nor the legislative policies stated how school principals were to evaluate the adequacy of instruction for meeting the needs of English Learners (*Castenada v. Pickard*, 1981; de Jong, 2013, Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009; *Plyler v. Doe*, 1982).

Without school principals knowing how to effectively comply with these mandates, the burden to meet the educational needs of English Learners rested solely on the individual English Learner teacher (Arkoudis, 2006; DeCapau & Marshall, 2011; Goals, 2000; Goldenberg, 2008; Hakuta, 2011; Koyama, 2004). English Learner teachers were responsible to provide instruction, assessment, and communication in a language that was understood by the learners and their families (Civil Rights Act, 1964; Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965). Studies found English Learner teachers did not feel appropriately prepared to work with English Learners in all core academics and needed the support of school principals to effectively meet these diverse needs (deJong & Harper, 2005; Gandara & Baca, 2008; Kendall, 2006; Menken, 2009; Newman, Samimy, & Romstedt, 2010; Nordmeyer, 2008). As a result, equity and access to education for English Learners differed according to the English Learner teacher's capacity to comply with the mandates without support from school principals. Conversely, English Learners

did not receive equitable access to an education that met their respective needs and remained largely ignored in mainstream classes (deJong, 2013; Goldenberg, 2008; Hakuta, 2011; Koyama, 2004; Menken, 2010; Rosa, 2010; Thomas & Collier, 2002, 2004; Wiley & Wright, 2004).

These English Learners remained ignored until the federal government assumed a more active role in the identification of English Learners, oversight of programs and instruction for English Learners, and funding allocations based on accountability measures for English Learners through the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* (deJong, 2013; Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009; Wiley & Wright, 2004). English Learners were identified as students who needed additional resources to advance equity and access to a public education (No Child Left Behind, 2001). Title III under *No Child Left Behind* identifies English Learners as a disaggregate subgroup for instruction, assessment, and accountability. Specifically, Title III mandates school principals address the academic underachievement of English Learners in core academic proficiency (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Berg, Petron, & Greybeck, 2012; Black, 2006; Cummins, 2000, 2011; Thomas & Collier, 2002). Data show English Learners underachieve compared with non-English Learners in reading/ language arts, math, social studies, and science (Cummins, 2012; Hakuta, 2011; National Center for Education Statistics, 2011; National Council of LaRaza, 2000; Wright & Pu, 2005). As English Learners underachieve in a language for which they had yet to master proficiency, Title III mandates schools must personalize instruction to effectively close achievement gap between English Learners and non-English Learners (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Cummins, 2011, 2012, Kindler, 2002; Menken, 2010). The law does not prescribe an instructional approach for school principals to educate English Learners, improve achievement for English Learners, or close achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners (No Child Left Behind, 2001).

Central to Title III under *No Child Left Behind* are the new mandates for accountability measures for English Learners. Title III establishes annual measurable achievement objectives (AMOs) for English Learners for growth, proficiency, and adequate yearly progress (Hakuta, 2011; No Child Left Behind, 2001; Wiley & Wright, 2004). The legislation appropriates federal monies based on how well schools met these AMOs including accountability measures established for English Learners (Bunch, 2011; Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009; Tanebaum et al., 2012). Specifically, the law requires English Learners meet the same academic standards within all core academics as non-English Learners and be assessed in math and English/ Language Arts on an annual basis to demonstrate adequate yearly progress (No Child Left Behind, 2001). These assessments are to be administered to English Learners in English, the target language for which they have not reached proficiency, by qualified staff in schools (deJong, 2013; Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009; No Child Left Behind, 2001). Menken (2009) and Rossell (2006) raised concerns regarding the validity, reliability, and fidelity of these assessments administered in English. Research shows testing students in the language for which they have not reached proficiency only exacerbates the widening achievement gap between English Learners and non-English Learners (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Cummins, 2011; Kindler, 2002; Menken, 2010). English Learners underachieve compared with non-English Learners in all subjects (Cummins, 2011, 2012; Gunderson, 2008; Hakuta, 2011; National Council of LaRaza, 2000; Wright, 2005). Title III under *No Child Left Behind* does not specify how to ensure proficiency or how to address concerns regarding testing improprieties for English Learners (Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009; NCLB, 2001; Rossell, 2006).

As a result, compliance with the mandates of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* to meet the educational needs of English Learners is left to the responsibility of school principals. School

principals are responsible for complying with educational parameters for English Learners as prescribed by Title III under NCLB (No Child Left Behind, 2001). School principals face consequences for failure to meet these accountability mandates, failure to meet the educational needs of English Learners, and failure to properly assess student performance (Menken, 2009; Wiley & Wright, 2004). School principals are charged with raising awareness of the diverse needs of English Learners, identifying and implementing effective strategies and programs that will improve academic achievement of English Learners, narrowing achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners, and meeting accountability measures as prescribed under Title III of *No Child Left Behind* of 2001 (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Black, 2006; Kendall, 2006; Pawan & Ortloff, 2010; Rosa, 2010). The supportive role of the school principal for the education of English Learners can no longer be ignored (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Menken, 2010; Newman et al., 2010; Rosa, 2010; Sheng, Sheng, & Anderson, 2011; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

Rosa (2010) suggested that the role of the school principal is paramount to the learning experience and academic achievement of English Learners. School principals can more effectively support the education of their students if they understand their students (Rosa, 2010; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). These are complex relations between the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of English Learners and academic achievement (DeCapua & Marshall, 2010; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007; Rosa, 2010; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Research found that the task to improve academic achievement for English Learners is complicated by the educational backgrounds, language and culture, and learning styles, and that school principals must raise awareness of these factors to ensure the educational needs of English Learners are met (Leos & Saavedva, 2010).

For some school principals, the responsibility to meet the educational needs of English Learners is exacerbated by the rapidly growing population of English Learners in many schools in states throughout the Southeast and Midwest United States. Several states in the Southeast and Midwest United States are labeled as pre-emerging gateway states for immigration, as these states have experienced more than a 200% growth in the English Learner population (Singer, 2004). Many schools in these states have typically been homogenous populations of learners with relatively similar learning styles, educational backgrounds, and socio-economic status (Hakuta, 2011; Singer, 2004). Many that have experienced rapid population growth of English Learners must address issues for finding qualified teachers, adequate instruction, and classroom resources (Fenner, 2012; Gandara & Baca, 2008; Kendall, 2006; Leos & Saavedva, 2010; Rosa, 2010). With projections that English Learners will comprise 40% of the total population of school-aged children in America's public schools by 2030, Berg, Petron and Greybeck (2012) suggested further study into how a school principal addresses the issues germane to the educational needs of English Learners before and after the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind*.

Statement of the Problem

The interpretation and implementation of an instructional approach to support the education of English Learners is the responsibility of school principals (No Child Left Behind, 2001). The pressure to comply with federal policy mandates for accountability necessitates school principals identify strategies germane to the educational needs of English Learners who underachieve in the mainstream classroom due to limited proficiency in English (Crawford, 2004; Gandara & Baca, 2008; Government Accountability Office, 2006; Goldenberg, 2008; Hakuta, 2011; Koyoma, 2004; Menken, 2009; Willner, Rivera, & Acosta, 2009). Leos and

Saavedva (2010) proposed that the role of the school principal is critical to boost academic achievement for all students. However, Chenowith (2015) suggested a school principal's agency to improve academic achievement of English Learners across core academics is problematic due to limited English proficiency. To accomplish this task a school principal must raise awareness of English Learners, develop instructional and assessment plans to meet the needs of English Learners, and provide accommodations for assessments which, in turn, directly supports the education of English Learners (DeCapua & Marshall, 2010; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). The problem is that training and procedures on how school principals should effectively accomplish these tasks to ensure proficiency and compliance with federal mandates of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* has been overlooked (DeCapua & Marshall, 2010; Gandara & Baca, 2008). Many school principals may not have the understanding to interpret and implement federal policies that support the education of English Learners (Gandara & Baca, 2008; Rosa, 2010).

School principals are challenged to comply with federal policy mandates for accountability among a growing English Learner population and a widening achievement gap between English Learners and non-English Learners, as well as a lack of qualified staff to teach English Learners, limited professional development for mainstream teachers, and limited time as EL populations rapidly increase (Gandara & Baca, 2008; Kendall, 2006; Leos & Saavedva, 2010). As such, many school principals do not know how to affectively achieve the desired academic outcomes and comply with the accountability mandates through Title III. Thus, an understanding of how principals attempted to meet the mandates with limited knowledge and training will aid current principals in understanding the successes and challenges of those who initially faced the Title III accountability measures. The context of this study will record oral histories of how school principals interpreted, implemented, and complied with mandates and

educational parameters for instruction and assessment of English Learners before and after the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* of 2001.

Research shows that the academic achievement gap between English Learners and non-English Learners continues to widen (Goldenberg, 2008; Gunderson, 2008; Government Accountability Office, 2006; Hakuta, 2011; Koyama, 2004; Goals 2000, 1994; Leos & Saavedva, 2010; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007). Studies have shown that once *No Child Left Behind* mandated accountability measures for English Learners, the awareness of the diverse educational needs of English Learners was raised among school principals (deJong, 2013; No Child Left Behind, 2001; Rossell, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 2002; Wiley & Wright, 2004; Willner, Riveria, & Acosta, 2008). However, federal polices failed to provide information and training on how school principals were to meet these needs, leaving this to each individual school. School principals were left with the task of meeting the needs of this growing population of diverse learners and narrowing achievement gaps through self-actualization and personal interpretation of federal policy implementation for English Learners.

Prior to the mandates for accountability, the education of English Learners in public schools had been, by default, the responsibility of the English Learner teacher. This default in responsibility was due to the language barriers between English Learners and mainstream teachers, inadequate training for mainstream teachers to educate English Learners, and misconceptions about second language acquisition and linguistically diverse learners on student achievement (Berg, Petron, & Greybeck, 2012; Fenner, 2012; Newman, Sammiy & Romstedt, 2010; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Given these challenges, school principals who know how to address the educational needs of English Learners through personalized instruction will be better equipped to improve academic achievement of English Learners, narrow achievement gaps

between English Learners and non-English Learners, and support English Learner teachers in the classroom. However, extant literature reveals that school principals lack the agency to reduce conflicting layers of federal policies, to interpret and implement those policies, and to transform school culture to support the education of English Learners (DeCapua & Marshall, 2010; Gandara & Baca, 2008; Kendall, 2006; Leos & Saavedva, 2010; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007; Rosa, 2010). Thus, the narrative of principals who have approached this challenge both before and after the passage of Title III will add to the literature through the oral histories of their roles and responsibilities to improve learning for English Learners.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine how the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* (2001) influenced the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners. Extant literature addressed a disconnect between federal policymaking and local implementation. The role and responsibility of the school principal is paramount in the implementation of these mandates, particularly as school principals must address these needs to provide effective instructional services, provide measurable assessments, and improve student achievement among English Learners (Brooks, Adams, & Morita-Mullaney, 2010; Fenner, 2012; Kendall, 2006; Leos & Saavadva, 2010; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007; Rosa, 2010; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011; Wright & Pu, 2005). Because interpretation and implementation are left to school principals, there may exist incongruence and discrepancies between the approaches school principals take to support the educational needs of English Learners.

Research Question

The study examined the influence of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* from the perspectives and oral histories of four school principals. Data collected through interviews with

the four school principals examined the influence of Title III and identified how the school principals supported the education of English Learners. The study sought to answer the following central question.

1. How did the passage of Title III influence the agency of principals to support the education of English Learners?

Significance of the Study

With projections for English Learners' enrollment in public schools to exceed 40% of nationwide student population by 2030, the role and responsibility of the school principal to meet the educational needs of English Learners must be examined. Recent growth in the English Learner population exceeds 200% increase in what Singer (2004) identified as pre-emerging gateway states for immigration. School principals in these states face a sense of urgency to support the education of English Learners as the passage of Title III established mandates for instruction, assessment, and achievement for English Learners. Since Title III of *No Child Left Behind* did not prescribe how school principals should address the educational needs, instruction, assessment, and achievement of English Learners, interpretation and implementation of Title III reside at the local level (Berg, Petron, & Greybeck, 2012; Fenner, 2012; Rossell, 2006; Wright & Pu, 2005). The challenge stems from the lack of direction for school principals regarding how to implement the federal policy mandates for English Learners. To glean an understanding of how school principals have supported the education of English Learners before and after the passage of Title III is significant for other school principals faced with the same challenge.

Central to this study is how school principals approached implementing Title III of *No Child Left Behind*. Leos and Saavedva (2010) suggested school principals have struggled to design and implement instructional programs for English Learners as well as establish the

structure and processes needed to support their learning. This implementation begins with school principals understanding the learner and the legal requirements of Title III (Kendall, 2006; Leos & Saavedva, 2010; Rosa, 2010; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Understanding how school principals addressed structural, processes, or organizational leadership to support the education of English Learners may be beneficial for other school principals to replicate with their respective EL populations. Decisions made by state, district, and school leadership determine how instruction is provided for English Learners. In doing so, other school principals may have a better understanding of how to prepare English Learners to enter and participate in a school setting and develop the language proficiency necessary to achieve the same standards non-English Learners (Berg et al., 2012; Brooks, Adams, & Morita-Mullaney, 2010; Leos & Saavedva, 2010; No Child Left Behind, 2001).

School principals will further benefit from this study by understanding how English Learners may impact school level staffing, curriculum, and professional development needs for non-EL trained personnel. Kendall (2006) found that teachers feel inadequately trained in accommodating the diverse needs of English Learners. Many have received no formal professional development on instructional strategies relevant to English Learners. School principals may need to address the need for professional development and collaboration for those teachers who directly support the education of English Learners (Chenowith, 2015; Leos & Savvedva, 2010; Rosa, 2010).

Finally, the findings of this study may be beneficial for federal policymakers who recently passed the ninth reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. This reauthorization, *Every Student Succeeds Act* of 2015, which replaces the *No Child Left Behind* Act of 2001, continues to mandate provisions and accountability measures related to

the education of English Learners. Understanding the needs of local implementation requires appropriate preparation of school principals or some prescription of how to implement those policies may be used to inform future policy. DeCapua and Marshall (2010) suggested that providing school principals with a framework to facilitate learning for English Learners is a necessity for the academic successes and cultural acceptance of English Learners. The findings from this study will inform policymakers and future education policy which supports the education of English Learners.

Definition of Terms

The education of English Learners has a wide array of identity markers, categories, and labels that are used to classify learners and instructional programs. These terms reflect the language of federal policy over the past 50 years and how language has changed to accurately reflect the cultural, educational, and social dimensions of this population. The proliferation of acronyms and abbreviated terms may create confusion in identifying the students who are central to this study. Therefore, defining terminology that is relevant to the research may provide clarity for the reader. For purposes of this study, the following operational definitions were used.

1. *English as a Second Language*

   English as a Second Language (ESL) is an instructional program designed to provide techniques, strategies, and curriculum specific to meeting the educational and linguistic needs of English Learners in listening, speaking, reading, writing, study skills, vocabulary, and cultural orientation. The site and participants in this study entitle the program of study for English Learners as "English as a Second Language."

2. *English Learner*

   According to *No Child Left Behind* (2001) and subsequent federal policies for educational reform, an English Learner (EL) is any student whose language first learned, language spoken most often, and/or language spoken in the home is a language other than English. The English Learner may be foreign-national or U.S. citizen.

3. *Pre-emerging Gateway States for Immigration*

   Pre-emerging gateway states for immigration are states with low percentages of English Learners throughout the latter part of the 20th century who have experienced significant growth exceeding 200% since 2000 (Berg, Petron, and Greybeck, 2012; Brooks, Adams, and Morita-Mullaney, 2010; Singer, 2004).

4. *Language Minority student*

   Collier and Thomas's (2002) longitudinal study of the academic success of language minority students identified LMs as students who were unable to communicate fluently or learn effectively in English without differentiated accommodations for instruction and assessment in English and core academic subjects

5. *School Principal*

   For purposes of this study, the role of school principal was embodied by those individuals who serve as principals or assistant principals in elementary or secondary schools prior to and following the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind*.

Delimitations

Delimitations are boundaries that the researcher set for this study (Creswell, 2013, 2014; Merriam, 2009). There were three delimitations imposed on the study. The delimitations were

embedded in the selection of participants for the narrative inquiry to determine how the passage of Title III influenced the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners. Only school principals who served in administration prior and following the passage of Title III under the *No Child Left Behind* Act of 2001 were selected for participation. Secondly, the study focused on school principals selected from a state in the southeastern United States, a state identified as a pre-emerging gateway state for immigration. Finally, each school principal served a school that had experienced at least a 200% growth in the English Learner population since 2000.

Limitations

The study was limited by the validity and reliability of self-reported data collected during the interviews. The researcher assumed honesty and candor in the interviews of the school principals. The researcher did not have the opportunity to observe the practice of school principals in the school environment as the interviews were conducted outside normal school hours. Data collection was based on the ability of the four principals to recall from memory thoughts and actions related to meeting the needs of English Learners. Thus, the study was limited by not having a complete understanding of the context of the school principals engaged at the respective schools.

The qualitative narrative inquiry design further limited the study by the lack of generalization of the findings to all school principals in public schools. Any generalizations from the study of school principals should be approached with caution in application to the influence federal policy mandates may have on other principals and to what extent those school principals may gain insight to local implementation of federal policy.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 defined English Learners based on ethnicity, language, and academic achievement. The chapter highlighted federal legislation and judicial decisions that have influenced access and equity of education for the nearly five million English Learners in the United States. Additionally, the chapter included research that cites poor academic performance of English Learners in a language for which they have not reached proficiency and widening academic achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners. Chapter 1 included the statement of problem, purpose of the study, and the research question that guide this study. A discussion of the study's significance as well as definition of terms, delimitations, and limitations were included in Chapter 1.

Chapter 2 will review current literature related to the topic. Specifically, Chapter Two will examine the parameters of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* central to meeting the educational needs of English Learners. A review of literature will provide insight into the complexities associated with educating English Learners. Rapid growth in the English Learner population and widening achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners provide insight into the importance of school principals' contribution to meeting the educational needs of this population of diverse learners. The review of literature will demonstrate a disconnect between the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* and local implementation which influences school principals' agency to meet the educational needs of English Learners.

Following the review of literature, Chapter 3 will present the research methodology used to achieve the purpose of the study. The study will employ a qualitative narrative inquiry approach to examine how the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* influences the agency of school principals to support the educational needs of English Learners. The study will

examine whether federal policy mandates support or hinder the school leader's ability. The context of the study will record oral histories of four school principals to support the education of English Learners before and after the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind*, 2001. In this chapter, the rationale for using a narrative inquiry is provided and supported through literature. The role of the researcher, participants, and site is discussed. Methods for data collection, specifically the researcher-developed interview protocol will be presented to conclude Chapter 3 and prepare for Chapters 4 and 5.

Chapter 4 will present findings from the four school principals who served in school leadership before and after the passage of Title III. Background of the school principal and school data related to demographics and significant population growth of English Learners will be provided. Emerging themes from the interviews will be presented pre-Title III passage and post-Title III passage for each school principal individually. Data collected through interviews of the four school principals will be presented as evidence of their oral histories to support the education of English Learners.

Following presentation of in-case findings for each school principal, Chapter 5 concludes the study with a discussion of how school principals saw their role in interpreting and implementing federal policy and the impact of role identity on the education of English Learners. Implications for policy makers, district personnel, and other school principals in pre-emerging gateway states for immigration supporting English Learner education will be included. Recommendations for future studies will be presented. The chapter will conclude with the researcher's reflections.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Public education for English Learners should be both equitable and accessible. Despite federal policy that addressed relevant issues for English Learners in public education, English Learners are largely the responsibility of English Learner teachers and remain ignored in mainstream classrooms (deJong, 2013; Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009; Wiley & Wright, 2004). Theoharis and O'Toole (2011) suggested that offering appropriate linguistic support in English and the native language as well as professional support for the English Learner teacher and school principal are the constructs that yield sound educational programs to support the education of English Learners.

The purpose of this study was to examine how the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* influenced the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners. This chapter will begin with a review of literature describing the education policy and judicial decisions for English Learners, provisions and mandates with the passage of *No Child Left Behind's* Title III, and the role of school principals. The historical perspective will present the foundation for identifying English Learners and providing equitable access to a public education. Judicial decisions and key legislation on English Learner education will examine shifts in federal policy discourse and the effects of education policy on the education of English Learners. A review of equity and accountability related to instruction, assessment, and academic achievement of English Learners as well as challenges to implementation of these federal mandates will follow. Additionally, the responsibility of school principals will be presented as specified in Title III of *No Child Left Behind* to understand and support the education of English

Learners. The review of literature concludes with a discussion of the gap found in the literature to be addressed by this study.

The Search Process

To complete the review of literature, the search process encompassed print, electronic, multi-media, and personal communication data sources. A search for books related to the topic of federal policy mandates on English Learners and school principals required that I search textbooks from previous coursework at The University of Tennessee and Carson Newman University, library catalog from The University of Tennessee, and personal libraries of English as a Second Language teachers and university professors. These books offered insight into the education practices and instructional strategies germane to the education of the English Learner.

Searches were also conducted using electronic databases including Academic Search Premier, Education Full Text/ Social Science, Education Source, ERIC via EBSCO Host, Google Scholar, and Sage Online. Most databases were accessed through the John C. Hodges Library at The University of Tennessee. While I began with all-inclusive searches, I found that limiting my results to full text, scholarly (peer reviewed) journals, and pdf full text was more constructive. Search terms included *English Learners*, *English as a Second Language, No Child Left Behind, Title III, school principal, Elementary and Secondary Education Act, education policy discourse, federal mandates, school reform, language acquisition, bilingualism, teaching English to speakers of other languages* (TESOL), *court cases,* and *accountability*. The sheer volume of literature related to *English Learners* required linking terms related to *English Learners* with terms related to *instruction* and *assessment*. I researched single and multiple keywords. The need to further refine the search resulted in directly linking terms related to *English Learners* with *education policy*. Abstracts were studied to determine relevancy to the current research.

Additionally, a readings course provided an in-depth review of education policy and school reform measures as well as the impact of policy on the education of English Learners. The review included articles, books, federal legislation, and court decisions. The course proved to be a valuable resource of historical perspectives meeting the educational needs of English Learners as well as case studies of academic achievement through a review of education policy and school reform. As the literature was reviewed, weekly summations and reflections on the various readings chronicled significant shifts in federal policy mandates.

The vast majority of the research found was related to English Learners and English Learner teachers. Most of the case studies were mixed methods and explored student achievement based on delivery models of instruction for English Learners. The review of legislation and judicial decisions was designed to gain an understanding of federal mandates and prescription for local implementation. The majority of the research reviewed identified English Learners as learners with diverse needs, provided mandates for instruction and assessment, established accountability measures, and revealed discrepancies in local implementation.

English Learner Education Policy Origins

Civil Rights Act of 1964

All provisions for the public education of English Learners originated with the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin to all learners and extended this right to English Learners. The law prohibited the denial of equal access to education for English Learners based on their limited language proficiency (Fenner, 2012; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007). In doing so, the Civil Rights Act (CRA) extended protection from discrimination to English Learners based on language or ethnicity and raised awareness of the diverse needs of this population

(deJong, 2013; Fenner, 2012; Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009; Wiley & Wright, 2004; Willner, Rivera, & Acosta, 2008).

Most language minority students were ignored in public education. Language minority students including English Learners were placed in English immersion classes in a sink-or-swim approach to instruction. There was a sizeable disparity in the average number of years of schooling between native-English speaking students (14 years) and language minority students (4 ½ years) (Wiley & Wright, 2004). A study sponsored by the National Education Association recommended a dual immersion strategy, which is the inclusion of both native language and English during instruction, for English Learners from pre-K through the early elementary years as a means to effectively address educational needs and decrease the drop-out rate of language minority students (Wiley & Wright, 2004). and that English should be taught as a second language to address the educational needs of English Learners (Wiley & Wright, 2004). The study also called for states to repeal English-only measures that specified the language of instruction for language minority students (Wiley & Wright, 2004). Proponents of English-only measures had sought to declare English as the official language for all citizens, thus negating efforts for bilingual or multi-lingual education.

By 1965 the federal government found many English Learners met Title I of the Civil Rights Act eligibility criteria as impoverished and academically non-proficient which would increase school funding through Title I (Coady, Hamann, Harrington, Pacheco, Pho, & Yedlin, 2003). Though English Learners met the eligibility criteria, the federal government denied funding for schools to assist with the education of English Learners. The federal government determined that academic non-proficiency for English Learners was a result of limited schooling rather than an English language deficiency (Coady et al., 2003; Wiley & Wright, 2004). As a

result of this determination, Title I did not provide funding or personalized instruction to support the education of English Learners (Civil Rights Act, 1964; Coady et al., 2003; Hakuta, 2011). Advocates for English Learners began to call for education reform that would broaden the identification of English Learners, bolster instructional programs and assessments to improve achievement, and highlight the need for increased supports from qualified staff and school principals to meet the educational needs of English Learners (Bunch, 2011; Coady et al., 2003; Fenner, 2012; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007; Rossell, 2006; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965

The passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) in 1965 answered the call for education reform by appropriating funds for professional development and research in language acquisition and instruction and mandating language proficiency assessments. President Lyndon Johnson and the United States Congress authorized funds to provide resources for bilingual classes, that is, dual instruction in the respective native languages of the English Learners and the target language of English as well as English as a Second Language instruction (Bunch, 2011; Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965; Fenner, 2012). Additional funds delivered professional development to increase qualified staff who worked with English Learners. The monies increased spending in research for sound instructional strategies to increase language proficiency (Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965). Though funds were appropriated through this legislation, the distribution of funds was competitive among states and districts and failed to extend to all English Learners (Wiley & Wright, 2004).

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965) sought to equalize access to education for English Learners and discouraged segregation and discrimination. Schools were prohibited from segregating students on the basis of language for instruction or assessment (Civil

Rights Act, 1964; Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965). Moreover, schools were required to test all language minority students for fluency, provide parents with school information in a language they understand, and require instruction of English Learners by qualified staff (Civil Rights Act, 1964; Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965). Though this legislation scrutinized the inadequacy of instruction afforded English Learners, these students were still largely ignored in mainstream classes (deJong, 2013; Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009, 2010; Thomas & Collier, 2002; Wiley & Wright, 2004).

The Need to Identify English Learners

The legal underpinning to identify English Learners as a population with diverse needs and require schools to meet those needs regardless of immigrant status was established through three judicial decisions, *Lau v. Nichols*, 1974, *Castenada v. Pickard*, 1981, and *Plyler v. Doe*, 1982. *Lau v. Nichols* (1974) found that identical treatment was not equal treatment for Chinese ancestry students who received English language instruction in San Francisco. The California Education Code imposed standards for instruction in English, mastery of the language, and compulsory attendance (Bunch, 2011; Gonzales, 2009; *Lau v. Nichols*, 1974). The suit was filed because the standard for instruction in English was only extended to approximately 1,000 of the 2,800 language minority students of Chinese ancestry and failed to extend equal treatment to all students (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974). In what became known as the Lau Remedies, the court ruled provision of books, desks, teachers, and lessons did not guarantee equity and equality for English Learners (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974; Wiley & Wright, 2004). Furthermore, the Lau Remedies required districts to implement bilingual education for English Learners as a method to ensure equity and access to instruction in core academics (Bunch, 2011; Gonzales, 2009; Hakuta, 2011; *Lau v. Nichols*, 1974). This litigation identified English Learners in public schools as only those

immigrants from other countries who spoke a language other than English (Bunch, 2011; Gonzales, 2009).

Subsequent litigation and judicial decisions in *Castenada v. Pickard* (1981) and *Plyler v. Doe* (1982) upheld and broadened the identification of English Learners to include illegal or undocumented immigrants who had previously not attended public school. In *Castenada v. Pickard* (1981) the plaintiff filed a suit for segregation in the classroom, discrimination through ability grouping strategies, and failure to provide an adequate bilingual program for English Learners in the Raymondville, Texas Independent School District. The plaintiff argued English Learners had been subject to discriminatory criteria of race and ethnicity in ability grouping strategies for classroom assignments. Schools in the Raymondville Texas Independent School District were found responsible by the court's decision to ensure English Learners were not segregated based on ethnicity or failed efforts to implement a bilingual education program to support the education of English Learners (*Castenada v. Pickard*, 1981).

In this ruling, the United States Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit established a three-part test to evaluate the adequacy of a district's bilingual education program for English Learners based on theory, practice, and results (*Castenada v. Pickard*, 1981). The intent was to determine how the program would be held responsible for meeting the requirements of the Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974 (*Castenada v. Pickard*, 1981). The following three questions were established by the Court to assist all public schools in developing and implementing instructional programs for English Learners (*Castenada v. Pickard*, 1981; Wiley & Wright, 2004).

a. Is the program based on educational theory recognized as sound by some experts legitimate?

b. Are programs and practices including resource and personnel, reasonably calculated to implement this theory effectively?
c. Does the school district evaluate its programs and make adjustments where needed to ensure language barriers are actually being overcome?

The use of this three-part test was later expanded by the Office of Civil Rights Policy Update in 1991 to require school principals to assess English Learners for fluency, provide parents with school information in a language they understand, and offer instruction in English by qualified staff (Bunch, 2011; Fenner, 2012; Gonzales, 2009).

As mentioned earlier, the ruling in *Plyler v. Doe* (1982) was significant due to the extension of equal access to public education for English Learners regardless of legal or documented status. *Plyler v. Doe* (1982) upheld the 14th Amendment of the United States Constitution that implies all students must be appropriately served through a free, public education. The wording of "no person" rather than "citizen" extended this protection to any non-national or undocumented person who seeks an education (*Plyler v. Doe*, 1982). Justice Brennan's majority opinion noted that denial of a public education to undocumented children would only create a lifetime of hardship and permanent lower class (Gonzales, 2009; *Plyler v. Doe*, 1982). The Court stated English Learners may not be denied educational services based on undocumented status (*Plyler v. Doe*, 1982). Additionally, the Court ruled that schools are not agents for enforcing immigration law (*Plyler v. Doe*, 1982). The precedent opined through these decisions frame the school's responsibility to identify the diverse needs of English Learners regardless of race, ethnicity, or undocumented status and meet those needs through educationally sound instructional programs (de Jong, 2013, Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009). Caught in the

political crossfire of protecting illegal or undocumented immigrants are school principals who must ensure equity and access (Gonzales, 2009).

The Mandate for Equitable and Accessible Education

Bilingual Education Act

To provide equity and access to education through an educationally sound instructional program, many schools employed bilingual education (Bunch, 2011; Fenner, 2012; Kindler, 2002; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Bilingual education was not a new approach, dating back to the early 1900s in the United States. Bilingual schools had been established in several states because of the influx of German, Swedish, and Danish languages and cultures in public schools and as a result of the absence of qualified English-speaking teachers for English Learners (deJong, 2013; Fenner, 2012). As deJong (2013) stated, "For English Learners, equity is not served by providing them with the same instruction without making specific accommodations for their needs" (p. 102). Teachers and school principals must negotiate multiple discourses from federal mandates to district expectations to implement effective instructional strategies and accommodations that are best for English Learners (deJong, 2008/ 2013). One accommodation viewed by policymakers and school personnel as effective for English Learners was the prescription of bilingual education in public schools (Bunch, 2011; Fenner, 2012; deJong, 2008, 2013; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

The Bilingual Act or what became known as Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was passed in 1968 as the first comprehensive federal intervention in the education of English Learners. The law defined a bilingual program as one that provided instruction in English and in the native language of the student (Bilingual Education Act, 1968). The goals were to improve English proficiency for English Learners in listening, speaking,

reading, and writing as well as prepare them to participate effectively in the regular classroom as quickly as possible (Bilingual Education Act, 1968; deJong, 2008, 2013). The language of this act was viewed as an attempt to expand bilingual education to include any alternative instructional program that developed English proficiency and helped English Learners meet the same state content standards as native English-speaking students (deJong, 2013).

The Bilingual Act allocated funds for districts that supported bilingual education programs and educational agencies that provided professional development and research assistance for staff who worked with English Learners (Bunch, 2011; Fenner, 2012; Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965; Wiley & Wright, 2004). Funds in the form of federal grants were competitive and authorized only for districts that offered bilingual programs (Bilingual Education Act, 1968). Subsequent revisions and amendments to the Bilingual Education Act from 1974 to 1994 increased funding and relaxed the autonomy for how that money was spent (Bunch, 2011). Prescription for compliance with these provisions of the Bilingual Education Act was the responsibility of the local schools (Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965; deJong, 2013; Wiley & Wright, 2004).

Different reauthorizations of the Bilingual Education Act from 1974-1994 expanded the academic calendar day, provided funding for enrichment opportunities before and after school, and incorporated technology in the classroom for English Learners. Mandates for instructional programs for bilingual education were inserted in the 1974 reauthorization; mandates for accountability measures were not prescribed until 2001 (Bunch, 2011). The Lau Remedies were used as a barometer to measure the soundness of these programs and in doing so, improved a district's opportunity to receive federal monies for bilingual education (Bunch, 2011; Fenner, 2012; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007). Furthermore, the act established criteria for data

collection, academic achievement, gains in English proficiency, and a viable curriculum for English Learners (Bunch, 2011; Fenner, 2012; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011; Wiley & Wright, 2004).

Improving America's School Act

As a precursor to the next reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Office of Civil Rights issued a policy update that modified programming for English Learners. The policy adopted the Castenada three-part test, required all English Learners be assessed for fluency, initiated efforts to provide parents with school information in a language they understand, and determined instruction for English Learners be offered by qualified staff (Civil Rights Act, 1964; Civil Rights Policy Update, 1991).

Some of these federal mandates were addressed when President Bill Clinton signed the congressional reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1994 known as Improving America's Schools Act (IASA). The five-year reauthorization allocated $11 billion dollars for public education to assist students in meeting higher standards, aligned content and performance standards, established measures for adequate yearly progress, and provided competitive grants. If awarded a grant, a state or district could use the funds for professional development, technology, and quality instructional programs for English Learners among other populations with diverse needs (Improving America's School Act, 1994). Additionally, IASA (1994) established a National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education to assist states in data collection on English Learners and to offer $35 million for innovative model programs for foreign language assistance.

New to this reauthorization with direct impact on English Learners was Title I re-classification of economically disadvantaged students. Reclassification lowered the eligibility

percentage for schools from 60% to 50% thereby qualifying more schools with higher populations of English Learners (IASA, 1994). Title I monies could be coordinated with other school funds to provide healthcare for students and professional development for teachers working with populations like English Learners. Though funds were available, school principals had limited training and experience on how to effectively use these funds to provide effective professional development for staff (Bunch, 2011; Fenner, 2012; Meddaugh, 2014; Nordmeyer, 2008; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

Another challenge addressed in Improving America's Schools Act was the increase in the immigrant population and subsequent enrollment of English Learners in public schools (Gonzales, 2009; Gunderson, 2008). To address this challenge, the act authorized $100 million for districts with significant immigration influx. A district's eligibility for these funds was enrollment of more than 500 immigrants in K-12 or that the enrollment of English Learners comprised 3% of the district's total student population. The impact was improved equity and access to instructional programs, new instructional technology, and funding for those English Learners in larger school districts who qualified for services through Title I (IASA, 1994).

Goals 2000

The federal government continued to improve equity and access to a public education for English Learners, especially those in larger school districts as identified through IASA, with the passage of Public Law 103-227. Public Law 103-227, or what became known as Goals 2000, was passed by the United States Congress and enacted by President Bill Clinton. Goals 2000 was an effort to improve teaching and learning through a national framework for school reform in America. By doing so, all learners including English Learners were expected to meet the same content standards (Goals 2000, 1994).

Goals 2000 promoted research and systemic changes in public schools and authorized funds for federal education programs to meet the objectives and ensure equity and access for all learners. Goals 2000 provided $400 million in new monies for four years to re-focus attention and increase the depth and breadth of school improvement plans. Critical to this initiative was the alignment of standards, creation of multiple measures of student performance, and the equalization formula for per pupil spending. English Learners were identified and included as part of this initiative and expected to adhere to the same standards as non-English Learners. Schools were responsible for local implementation of these federal mandates in Goals 2000 which further established a pattern of federal mandates without prescription for local implementation. The law established the Office of Educational Research and Improvement to assist schools with meeting these objectives for English Learners (Goals 2000, 1994).

Goals 2000 directed attention toward inadequate investment in educational research for learners of low socio-economic status, disadvantaged, disabled, or English Learners where one of six low-income children needed preschool services, three of five learners need remedial learning, one of five learners needed bilingual education, and one in twenty learners were eligible for assistance under the Job Training Partnership Act in 1992 (Goals 2000, 1994). These statistics demonstrate that inadequacies in meeting educational needs served very few of those targeted learners (deJong, 2013; Hakuta, 2011; Wiley & Wright, 2004).

Section 912 of Title IX established the Office of Educational Research and Improvement to further address educational needs of English Learners, economic disadvantaged, or minorities who were at risk for low educational attainment (Goals 2000, 1994). Title IX authorized $68 million to establish a national institute to address these students. The language of Title IX recommended that the federal government develop effective policies and programs to minimize

achievement gaps and improve achievement, coordinate research, develop methods of instruction and educational practices, and afford equal access to educational opportunities for these identified at-risk students. The sense of urgency for school principals to meet these needs, especially of English Learners, was compounded by the national estimate that there would be over three million English Learners entering public education by the year 2000 (Crawford, 2004; deJong, 2013; Hakuta, 2011).

The Call for Education Reform

The discourse of federal policy mandates to support the education of English Learners reflects the need to identify English Learners, raise awareness of their diverse needs, provide for instruction and assessment, and achieve English proficiency (DeCapau & Marshall, 2011; Fenner, 2012). Conflicts arise when policymakers attempt a one-size-fits-all approach (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Goldenberg, 2008; Kendall, 2006; Menken, 2009, 2010; Wiley & Wright, 2004). Research confirms that this one-size-fits-all approach fails to implement sound instructional programs to accommodate the diverse needs of English Learners which only widens the achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners and thereby hinders the effectiveness of schools to meet the educational needs of English Learners (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Cummins, 2011; Goldenberg, 2008; Hakuta, 2011; Koyama, 2004; Menken, 2009). There is a need for alterative discourse to achieve educational equity for English Learners through effective instruction that will result in increased education outcomes for English Learners.

The first call for reform was the elimination of bilingual education as a viable instructional option for English Learners. Wiley & Wright (2004) and Fenner (2012) suggested that the steady current of resistance to bilingualism is fraught with future implications and

unanswered questions. Proponents for the elimination of bilingual education blame the use of this program for academic underachievement of English Learners (Fenner, 2012). Proponents proclaimed that bilingual education can no longer be blamed for poor academic outcomes for English Learners. Cummins (2011) and Wiley & Wright (2004) implied that until the nation acknowledges language diversity as an asset rather than a liability, the education of English Learners will fail to succeed.

The proposed elimination of bilingual education advocacy fostered monolingualism or English-only instruction for all students. Some argued bilingualism promoted affirmative ethnicity, that is the segregation of ethnicities based on language abilities (Wiley & Wright, 2004). Senator S. I. Hayakawa's failed constitutional amendment, Tatlovich's 5 Hypotheses for language acquisition, and Ron Unz' campaign against bilingualism were significant measures that shaped and promoted the ideology of the English-only movement (Wiley & Wright, 2004). Hayakawa failed to garner support for passage of a constitutional amendment, but was successful in the implementation of English-only regulations in 23 states (Wiley & Wright, 2004). Tatalovich's 5 Hypotheses were used as rationale for the movement to foster linguistic development. This English-Only initiative was complicated by racial hostility and ethnic conflicts, class antagonism by low socio-economic status, and anti-foreigner propaganda in the United States (Wiley & Wright, 2004).

Leading the campaign to restrict bilingual education under the auspices of advocating for immigrants and the right to learn English, Ron Unz, a businessman and aspiring politician, perhaps was most influential in the English-only movement. Unz proposed five assumptions that suggested all children should be taught English as quickly and completely as possible (Wiley & Wright, 2004; Wright, 2005).

- English is the language of opportunity.
- Immigrant language minority parents are eager to have their children learn English.
- Schools have a moral obligation to teach English.
- Drop-out rates were cited as evidence that schools failed to appropriately educate English Learners.
- Young immigrants acquire a second language easily.

Ron Unz's success was predicated on the first three assumptions that both advocates and opponents to bilingual education would agree. Data show evidence to the contrary for the last two assumptions, citing less than a third of language minority students received bilingual education services and thus, a correlation could not be established between underachievement and drop-out rates with services not rendered (Wiley & Wright, 2004). Data contradicted the fifth assumption that young immigrants do not acquire a second language easily and face greater obstacles when illiterate in a native language (Cummins, 2000, 2011; Gandara & Baca, 2008; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

The second call for education reform endorsed the need for increased academic expectations and increased accountability measures for English Learners (No Child Left Behind, 2001). Data show that English Learners underperformed compared with their non-English Learner counterparts in all academic areas (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Cummins, 2011; National Center for Education Statistics, 2011; Rossell, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 2002). English Learners failed to demonstrate academic advancement in English and core academic proficiency in reading/ language arts, math, social studies, and science (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Berg, Petron, & Greybeck, 2012; Black, 2006; Cummins, 2011; Thomas & Collier, 2002). Studies found teachers needed administrative support to provide instructional supports that would meet

the increased academic expectations and accountability for English Learners (deJong, 2008; Hakuta, 2011; Goals 2000, 1994; Goldenberg, 2008; Koyama, 2004).

As a result, the third call for reform is a need for principal leadership and responsiveness to interpret and implement federal education policies that support the education of English Learners (Datnow, 2002; Walqui, 2000). Through legislation and litigation schools were required to identify English Learners and implement effective instructional programs to accommodate their needs (Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965; Fenner, 2012; Improving America's Schools Act, 1994, Goals, 2000). Meddaugh (2014) suggested the school principal is responsible for implementation of effective instructional programs for all learners. Principals are responsible for making decisions on instructional strategies, assessment accommodations, and models of delivery appropriate for all learners (Coady et al., 2003). Coady et al. (2003) highlighted that school principals are expected to lead the reform efforts to support the education of English Learners despite a lack of coordinated effort of reform at a state or national level.

Summary of English Learner Legislation and Policy since 1964

Legislation and litigation since 1964 have shaped the identification and education of English Learners (see Table 1). The identification of English Learners was broadened to protect illegal or undocumented immigrants (*Plyler v. Doe*, 1982). In doing so, judicial decisions extended the right to a public education to all English Learners regardless of status. The passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1965 along with subsequent reauthorizations established the framework for schools to provide appropriate instruction for English Learners. Testing for language proficiency in English, funding for instructional programs based on sound educational philosophy, and mandating qualified staff to support the education of English Learners were included in federal policy. The manner in which funding is connected with

educational attainment, academic achievement, and school success necessitates states and schools to comply with federal mandates.

Table 1. Legislation and Litigation to Support English Learners since 1964

Year	Act or Court Case	Key Provisions
1964	PL 88-352 Civil Rights Act	Extended protection of rights to English Learners
1965	PL 89-10 Elementary and Secondary Education Act	First mention of English Learners; Included specific language to discourage discrimination based on language
1968	PL 90-247 ESEA Amendments including Bilingual Education Act	Allocated funds for districts implementing bilingual education
1974	Lau v Nichols	Provision of books, desks, teachers, or lessons did not guarantee equity and equality; Established the Lau Remedies
1981	Castenada v Pickard	Established 3-part test to evaluate adequacy of district's program
1982	Plyler v Doe	Upheld 14th amendment of U. S. Constitution and extended the right to a public education to illegal/ undocumented immigrants
1994	PL 103-227 Goals 2000: Educate America Act	Established the National Education Goals Panel and mandated English Learners meet the same content standards as non-English Learners
1994	PL 103-382 Improving America's Schools Act	Called for English Learners to meet the same challenging standards as other students; provided technical assistance for local test development; lowered Title I eligibility criteria
2001	PL 107-110 No Child Left Behind Act	Called for detailed state plans and establishment of specific accountability measures of English language proficiency to include reading, writing, listening, speaking, and comprehension

Laws regarding the education of English Learners are often mistaken as educational policy. Any law prescribing educational policy is in actuality a de facto language policy (Figueroa, 2013; Menken, 2009; Pereia & Gentry, 2013). Figueroa (2013) and Menken (2009) state that any law connecting allocations of funds with federal mandates for instructional programs and academic achievement is in fact illegal and implicitly unlawful. These questions of unlawful mandates coupled with the adoption of consistent content standards and assessment for English Learners as their non-English Learner peers were the catalyst for formulation of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (Leos & Saavedva, 2010; Menken, 2009, 2010; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007; Rossell, 2006; Rudalevige, 2005).

Changes in the Identification of English Learners

Not until the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) in 2001 billed as *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB) were English Learners identified as a population with diverse educational needs that required additional resources to advance equity and access. *No Child Left Behind* (2001) defined English Learners as students who have been born in another country and immigrated with parents to the United States. The following questions were asked to determine if an English Learner needed to be tested for qualification of services.

1. Was the student's first acquired language a language other than English?
2. Is the language most often spoken by the student a language other than English?
3. Is the language most often spoken in the student's home a language other than English, regardless of the language spoken by the student?

The *No Child Left Behind* Act of 2001 was the eighth reauthorization of Elementary and Secondary Education Act and ushered in greater federal involvement in the education of English Learners. The reauthorization eliminated bilingual education, replaced Title VII with Title III,

doubled federal funding, and streamlined language acquisition to reflect a paradigm shift from pluralist, the view of linguistic and cultural diversity as a norm within and across geographical borders, to assimilationist, the view of monolingualism (English-only) in instruction and assessment of English Learners (Coady et al., 2003; deJong, J. E., 2013; Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009; No Child Left Behind, 2001; Tanenbaum, Boyle, Soga, LeFlotch, Golden, Petroccia, Toplitz, & Taylor, 2012).

From the literature on identification criteria for English Learners, Rossell's (2006) research found the identification of English Learners was inaccurate because identification was based on academic underachievement. English Learners were no longer identified as English Learners once their scores increased. Rossell (2006) argued that if a subgroup of students is categorized by low test scores, then those students must have low test scores. This discrepancy in how English Learners were identified as a result of *No Child Left Behind* differed from other subgroups like African Americans or economically disadvantaged because those respective groups remained regardless of improved test scores (Rossell, 2006; Wright & Pu, 2005). This discrepancy in how English Learners were now identified under *No Child Left Behind* proved unreliable in data reporting for assessment and achievement accountability as required under Title III (Pereia & Gentry, 2013; Rossell, 2006; Wright & Pu, 2005).

Prescription for Local Implementation of Title III Mandates

Instruction

The passage of *No Child Left Behind's* Title III shifted the provision for instruction of English Learners to states, districts, and schools and permitted greater flexibility to implement effective instructional programs that were educationally sound to meet the needs of English Learners. The goal of these instructional programs was to help English Learners learn English

and demonstrate linguistic proficiency (Bailey, Butler, & Sato, 2007; Fenner, 2012; Figueroa, 2013; No Child Left Behind, 2001; Rossell, 2006). The inclusion of English proficient students was a change in the design of the instructional program and believed to facilitate language proficiency for all learners (No Child Left Behind, 2001). With the mandate of accountability measures, states, districts, and schools had to implement instructional programs that demonstrated effectiveness in teaching and learning for English Learners and improvement in academic growth and achievement of all English Learners (Fenner, 2012). Without prescription of a specific instructional program, Title III afforded states, districts and schools the autonomy in the selection and implementation of an instructional program or multiple programs to support the education of English Learners so long as the objectives of Title III were met (No Child Left Behind, 2001).

To meet the instructional needs of English Learners and ensure the objectives of Title III were met, school principals may need to understand the role of academic language for English Learners (Cummins, 2011). In his seminal work, Cummins (1994) proposed two dimensions of language proficiency for English Learners that schools should incorporate in the provision for instructional programs, basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). The work asserted that language learners first achieved proficiency in basic interpersonal skills to assist them in assimilation into the culture of the second or target language. Studies found that academic language proficiency may require five to nine years of study (Crawford, 2004; Hakuta, 2011; Thomas & Collier, 2002; Wiley & Wright, 2004; Willner, Rivera, & Acosta, 2008). According to Cummins (1994, 2000, 2011), a different set of skills is required for English Learners to be academically successful, and that this

attainment of proficiency would require school principals to provide instructional resources through collaborative planning and staff professional development.

New to Title III was the expectation for English Learners to meet the same academic content standards as non-English Learners. The challenge for academic achievement in core academics was only perpetuated by the fact that mastery of core academics was in a language for which English Learners had not reached proficiency. In fact, research shows that limited English proficiency among English Learners may hinder the ability to meet the same academic standards as non-English Learners without appropriate instruction and accommodations (Cummins, 2000, 2011; Gandara & Baca, 2008; Thomas & Collier, 2002). Studies found that provisions for appropriate instruction and accommodations are even more critical for older English Learners in secondary schools to meet these same academic content standards as non-English Learners (Cummins, 2000; National Center for Education Statistics, 2011).

To address these provisions for instruction and achievement, Title III allocated grants available to local educational agencies, higher education institutions, and community-based organizations. Title III established research and evaluation to be conducted through the newly created Office of Educational Research and Improvement in coordination with the Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for English Learners. Grants were available for local educational agencies and non-profits who demonstrated significant progress in meeting the educational needs of English Learners (No Child Left Behind, 2001). Specifically, grants were available to agencies that developed instructional materials in languages for Native Americans and other low-incidence languages, and agencies who developed and implemented professional development to prepare qualified individuals to meet the educational needs of limited English proficient students (Bunch, 2011; Nixon, McCardle, &

Leos, 2007; No Child Left Behind, 2001; Pereia & Gentry, 2013).

Assessment

Central to the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was the incorporation of standardized assessment to monitor and measure how well schools supported the education of English Learners (Hornberger & Link, 2012; Menken, 2009; No Child Left Behind, 2001). Title III required all English Learners to participate in statewide high stakes testing (Bailey, Butler, & Sato, 2007; Wright & Pu, 2005). Specifically, the law required English Learners to be assessed in math and English/ Language Arts on an annual basis to demonstrate adequate yearly progress (No Child Left Behind, 2001). English Learners who had been in U.S. schools for at least three years were to be tested for reading proficiency in English (No Child Left Behind, 2001; Rossell, 2006). All of these assessments were to be administered in a valid and reliable manner and accommodate for the diverse learning needs of English Learners (Figueroa, 2013; Hornberger & Link, 2012). Accommodations might include extra time, flexible scheduling, small group pull-out testing environments, read-aloud for instruction and test questions, and bilingual dictionaries.

According to the new law, an English Learner was no longer exempt from inclusion in state assessments. Moreover, the inclusion was not contingent upon the student's date of entry into the country, regardless of tenure in the country (Menken, 2009; Rossell, 2006). These assessments for all core academics were to be administered in English, the target language for which these students had not met proficiency, (deJong, 2013; Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009; No Child Left Behind, 2001). Schools, and more specifically, school principals were responsible for oversight, administration, and accommodations for these assessments (NCLB, 2001).

Instructional time is lost as *No Child Left Behind's* Title III requires additional assessments in all core academics instead of just mathematics and English/ Language Arts (NCLB, 2001). Thomas and Collier (2002) found the efforts made to improve English proficiency through assessments for English Learners cost those same students one to two years of content learning. Instructional time lost during the test preparation and additional assessments in all core academics is difficult to regain and further widens the achievement gap between English Learners and non-English Learners (Gunderson, 2008; Thomas & Collier, 2002). Herbert and Houser (1999) found "if a student is not proficient in the language of the test, performance is likely to be affected by construct-irrelevant variance- that is the test score is likely to underestimate the knowledge of the subject being tested" (p. 225). Consequently, states, districts, and schools faced challenges to provide highly effective instructional programs to address increased concerns with academic underachievement and minimize marginalization of English Learners as inferior in their educational experience (Gunderson, 2008; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Wright & Pu, 2005).

Achievement and Accountability

The shift in federal mandates for accountability under *No Child Left Behind's* Title III to include English Learners in state report cards of student achievement and accountability influenced the discourse among educational reformists, politicians, and key stakeholders (Menken, 2009). Test scores for English Learners were established as critical data for student achievement and accountability measures (Menken, 2009; Wright & Pu, 2005). For the first time in federal legislation, assessment and accountability data were disaggregated by English Learners (Gandara & Baca, 2008; No Child Left Behind, 2001; Wright & Pu, 2005). To be considered a disaggregate group, Title III required the population of students had to be greater than 30 and

had to be included in all standardized testing (No Child Left Behind, 2001; Wright & Pu, 2005). New to education policy for English Learners was the creation of annual measurable achievement objectives for English Learners in growth, proficiency, and adequate yearly progress (Hakuta, 2011; No Child Left Behind, 2001; Wiley & Wright, 2004).

From a multi-year, multi-state quantitative study of the academic achievement of 200,000 language minority students, Thomas and Collier (2002) sought to analyze effective instructional practices to inform educational policy. The study examined the time required for former English Learners to reach parity with native English-speaking students, identified important student background variables and program implementation variables, and identified sociocultural and sociolinguistic variables that influence language minority students. Thomas and Collier (2002) found school principals and policymakers need to understand the population that is being served. By understanding the population being served, school principals and policymakers can more effectively provide equity and accessibility to education (Fenner, 2012; Thomas & Collier, 2002). They found the minimum time to reach grade level in a second language is four years only if those students had at least four years of primary language schooling (Thomas & Collier, 2002). English Learners tend to outperform bilingual school students upon initial exit from a program into the mainstream classes. This dialogue of understanding the population being served can, in fact, determine effective instruction for English Learners (Fenner, 2012).

Nevertheless, Thomas and Collier (2002) found that bilingual students outperformed those English Learners or monolingual-schooled students by the time they reached high school. Students with four to five years of schooling in the primary or first language reached the 34th NCE (23rd percentile) by 11th grade when placed in an English as a Second Language program and then scheduled in mainstream classes with non-English Learner peers. This is approximately

half of the achievement gap needed to place the language minority students on grade level (50th percentile). Thomas and Collier (2002) determined much of this achievement data were for English Learners who have had adequate schooling in their native language, were classified as being on-grade level in their respective native language, and required additional time and resources to reach grade level in English as a Second Language services.

These assessment data enabled policymakers and politicians to evaluate whether the federal dollars were appropriately invested to yield measurable student outcomes (Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009; Tanenbaum et al., 2012). Concerns were raised regarding the validity, reliability, and fidelity of assessments administered in a language for which these students failed to demonstrate proficiency (Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009). The inaccuracies in the assessment of English Learners only perpetuated the widening of achievement gaps (Cummins, 2011; deJong, 2013; Goals 2000, 1994; Hakuta, 2011; Improving America's Schools Act, 1994; No Child Left Behind, 2001).

Assessment data revealed that actual academic achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners continued to widen regardless of the school reform measures or education policy mandates for English Learners (DeCapua & Marshall, 2010/ 2011; Goals, 2000, 1994; Goldenberg, 2008; Government Accountability Office, 2006; Hakuta, 2011; Herbert & Hauser, 1999; Koyama, 2004; Rossell, 2006). Studies found the mandate of accountability measures for English Learners forced schools and school principals to consider that English Learners in public education had needs that were not being met (deJong, 2013; No Child Left Behind, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002; Wiley & Wright, 2004; Willner, Riveria, & Acosta, 2008, 2009). Title III refrained from prescribing how school principals were to meet these needs. Thus, interpretation of how to meet federal policy mandates was left up to each individual state.

The states then forwarded the responsibility to interpret Title III mandates to local schools even though failure to comply with federal mandates would potentially have significant consequences. Conversely, school principals encountered the task to meet the needs of this growing population of diverse learners with limited knowledge or experience in interpretation or implementation of federal policy mandates.

Challenges to Support the Education of English Learners

With limited knowledge or experience to support the education of English Learners, school principals faced consequences for failure to implement the provisions for instruction, assessment, and accountability for English Learners under *No Child Left Behind's* Title III (Bailey et al., 2007; Menken, 2009; Rossell, 2006; Wiley & Wright, 2004; Wright & Pu, 2005). School principals were left to interpret Title III in an effort to determine how to meet the educational needs of English Learners under these accountability mandates. The manifestation of individual schools interpreting federal legislation highlighted a disconnect that existed between policymaking and local implementation. To improve the academic advancement and achievement for English Learners, school principals had to identify and implement effective strategies and programs that would advance academic achievement of English Learners and narrow achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Gunderson, 2008; Menken, 2010; Sheng, Sheng, & Anderson, 2011). Several challenges emerged for principals to support the education of English Learners from these provisions under Title III (Fenner, 2012; Rossell, 2006).

Though Title III successfully identified English Learners and recognized the need to provide instruction that was both equitable and accessible, there remained many challenges for school principals to implement these policy mandates (DeCapau & Marshall, 2011; Figueroa,

2013; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Title III had changed the identification of English Learners, mandated the same academic standards for English Learners as non-English Learners, required appropriate instruction and annual assessment for English Learners, and established annual objectives to measure growth, achievement, and adequate yearly progress, however, Title III did not prescribe how school principals would meet these needs. As a result, challenges to understand the English Learner, to create a shared vision to select and implement effective instructional programs, and to improve language proficiency while narrowing achievement gaps with non-English Learners intensified for school principals (Bunch, 2011; Fenner, 2012; Hakuta, 2011; Leos & Saaveda, 2010; Wright & Pu, 2005).

A challenge for school principals to support the education of English Learners and comply with Title III is found in a study of understanding the English Learner. In a survey of school principals about the challenges of English Learner education, Cho and Reich (2008) found that school principals were most challenged in understanding English Learners with limited background knowledge (70.6%), language barriers (58.8%), and lack of time and resources to devote to English Learners (41.2%). Challenges with the background knowledge of English Learners and language barriers between teacher and students echo findings of other studies (Arkoudis, 2006; Newman et al., 2010; Pawan & Ortloff, 2011; Villegas, 2012).

Cho and Reich (2008) recommended that school principals should prioritize the education of English Learners by raising linguistic and culture awareness of English Learners among staff through professional development. Failure to provide appropriate professional development was cited as a school principal's failure to prioritize Title III mandates and support the educational needs of English Learners (Brooks, Adams, & Morita-Mullaney, 2010).

Leos and Saavedva (2010) suggested that the greatest challenge for supporting these

needs is the lack of a shared vision among school principals to select and implement effective instructional strategies. *No Child Left Behind* inhibited a school principal's choices regarding appropriate pedagogy for English Learners (Fenner, 2011). The challenge for school principals to provide qualified teachers is manifest in the need for differentiated instruction to assist English Learners in meeting the same academic standards as non-English Learners (Fenner, 2012; Goodman, Hazelkorn, Bucholz, Duffy, & Kitta, 2011; Newman, Samimy, & Romstedt, 2010; Nordmeyer, 2008).

Goodman et al. (2011) and Newman, Samimy, and Romstedt (2010) found most districts have no program support for principals in supporting the education of English Learners or for principals in cultivating qualified staff to work directly with English Learners. Newman et al. (2010) found principal and academic supports was a necessity if all English Learners were to pass the Ohio Graduation Test to obtain a high school diploma. Dove and Honigsfeld (2010) suggested the challenge school principals face in finding qualified staff is only confounded with the growing population of English Learners in the mainstream classrooms. The complexities in curriculum design and instructional strategies appropriate for English Learners only intensifies the challenge facing school principals to provide appropriate professional development for teachers meeting the diverse needs of English Learners (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010; Newman et al., 2010). Principals had to provide appropriate training to nurture understanding the English Learner as well as second language acquisition or methodologies for learning that are a requirement for English Learners to reach academic success (Baecher, Rorimer, & Smith, 2012; Cho & Reich, 2008; Conderman, Johnston-Rodriguez, & Hartman, 2009; Newman et al., 2010).

These challenges in the instruction and assessment of English Learners were supported by achievement data which showed English Learners underachieved compared with non-English

Learners in all subjects (Cummins, 2000; Gunderson, 2008; Hakuta, 2011; National Council of LaRaza, 2000; Thomas & Collier, 2002; Wright, 2005). The challenge, as previously argued, is English Learners are assessed in a language for which they have yet to demonstrate proficiency (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Cummins, 2011; Kindler, 2002; Menken, 2010). There was also evidence that the achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners increased as the English Learner advanced in school (Menken, 2009; National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). The result is a population of students who do not have the academic skills necessary to graduate from high school and enter the workforce as employable members of society (Menken 2009, 2010; Sheng, Sheng, & Anderson, 2011).

Precipitated by low academic achievement, school principals also face the challenge to narrow achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners. (Goldenberg, 2008; Government Accountability Office, 2006; Hakuta, 2011; Herbert & Hauser, 1999; Improving America's Schools Act, 1994; Koyama, 2004). While policymakers left the interpretation of how to meet federal policy mandates to each individual state, the states then forwarded the responsibility to interpret federal policy mandates to local schools even though failure to comply with federal mandates would potentially have significant consequences (No Child Left Behind, 2001). Studies found that once *No Child Left Behind* mandated accountability measures for English Learners, the awareness of the diverse educational needs of English Learners was raised among school principals (deJong, 2013; Figueroa, 2013; Rossell, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 2002; Wiley & Wright, 2004; Willner, Rivera, & Acosta, 2008). Conversely, school principals and teachers encountered the task to meet the needs of this growing population of diverse learners and narrow achievement gaps through self-actualization and personal

interpretation of how to implement federal policy mandates for English Learners (DeCapau & Marshall, 2011; Figueroa, 2013).

de Jong (2013) proposed four principles to address the challenges associated with Title III's provisions for instruction, assessment, and achievement of English Learners. Principles for equity, affirming identities, promoting additive or bi/multilingualism, and structure for integration provide a framework through which educational policy and discourse for English Learners should be addressed. de Jong's (2013) research expanded the audience of key stakeholders, administrators, teachers, parents, students, district personnel, and community leaders to determine how to meet educational needs of English Learners. Expanding the audience, embracing values of respect and fairness, and consideration of the linguistic and cultural strengths of English Learners potentially narrowed the disconnect in the agency of school principals to support English Learner education (Cummins, 2011; deJong, 2013; Gandara & Baca, 2008; Wiley & Wright, 2004).

NCLB's Title III Summary

The passage of the *No Child Left Behind Act* of 2001 increased the role and responsibility of school principals to raise awareness of English Learners, implement an instructional plan to accommodate the diverse needs of English Learners, and comply with federal mandates for assessment of English Learners. All of these provisions were in an effort to improve academic achievement of English Learners and narrow achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners by ensuring equity and access to education. The law required English Learners to meet the same content standards as non-English Learners. Title III established annual measurable objectives for English Learners in growth, proficiency, and adequate yearly progress. While Title III under *No Child Left Behind* prescribed these educational mandates for English

Learners, the policy did not prescribe how these measures would be implemented. Implementation of these federal mandates under Title III of *No Child Left Behind* was left to individual states who, in turn, passed responsibility to school principals.

According to Hornberger and Link (2012) provisions for instruction, assessment, and accountability in Title III are inappropriate as a means for meeting the educational needs of English Learners unless they prescribe how school principals should implement these mandates. The effects of standardized assessment on student learning were higher affective filters in learning, inaccurate assessment of knowledge, and underestimating content literacy among English Learners (Demie & Strand, 2006; Goldenberg, 2008; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Kindler, 2002; Koyama, 2004). Because standardized assessment remains the only measure of academic achievement, future policy would need to an alternative approach to instruction and assessment. Solórzano (2008) found that half of the states use exit exams for high school graduation and 40% of English Learners fail them. While Menken (2009) cites the causal relation between high stakes testing and high school dropout rates, there is evidence of a partial relation. English Learners typically score 20-50% lower than native English speakers (Menken, 2009).

Willner, Rivera, and Acosta (2008) suggested the need for greater connectivity between those individuals responsible for policy formulation of Title III and those individuals, specifically school principals, who are responsible for local implementation of said policies. Opponents to federal school reform or a one-size-fits-all approach identify this competing value as equality and balance for English Learners (Willner, Rivera, & Acosta, 2008). The mistaken assumption has been that what would work for one population of students with needs for testing accommodations (students with disabilities) would work for another (English Learners). The school principal is the leading factor for effective implementation of educational policies for

English Learners, yet they have limited preparation and experience to support the education of English Learners (Hornberger & Link, 2012; Menken, 2009; Willner, Rivera, &Acosta, 2008).

Agency of the School Principal

The Role of the School Principal

Meddaugh (2014) affirmed the role of the principal is to improve instruction by focusing on instructional programs. The quality of instruction and effectiveness of the program depends upon the level of knowledge of the school principal and coherence of the school's structure and organization (Meddaugh, 2014; McGuigan & Hoy, 2006; Murnane, 2007; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011; Walqui, 2006). School principals are responsible for the operational organization of a school. School principals determine, along with a cohort of stakeholders, structure, rules, policies, and procedures. This organization provides a framework for how principals approach provision of quality instruction and academic successes for all learners, and that these decisions are the responsibility of the school principal (Meddaugh, 2014).

One role of school principals to support the education of English Learners involved placement of emphasis on high academic expectations (McGuigan & Hoy, 2006). The emphasis on high academic expectations correlated with the provisions on Title III to expect English Learners to meet the same standards in English and all core academics as non- English Learners (Fenner, 2012; No Child Left Behind, 2001; Rossell, 2006; Wright & Pu, 2005). Setting appropriate goals for student achievement improves education for all learners. Murnane (2007) found that improvement in academic success exists only when the school principals doing the work, that is implementing effective instruction and monitoring its success, understand how to meet the goals for English Learners.

Pawan and Ortloff (2010) found the growth in the population of English Learners within a school may influence a school principal's agency to meet the educational needs of English Learners. Pre-emerging gateway states for immigration refer to states with low percentages of foreign-born immigrants throughout the 20th century, but have experienced significant immigrant growth exceeding 200% since 2000 (Singer, 2004). Taylor and LaCava (2011), Newman, Samimy, and Romstedt (2010), and Kendall (2006) found school principals may lack adequate preparation needed to meet the educational needs of English Learners. Lack of training and experience among school principals only accentuates the disconnect between federal policy and local implementation and failure in accountability compliance (Taylor & LaCava, 2011).

School principals face the challenges to comply with education policy mandates through *No Child Left Behind's* Title III among a growing population of English Learners and a widening achievement gap between English Learners and non-English Learners (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Kendall, 2006). The problem is intensified because Title III mandated English Learners must attain the same academic achievement as their native English-speaking peers (No Child Left Behind, 2001; Pawan & Ortloff, 2010). How well-prepared school principals are to support the education of English Learners is challenging because the same mandates apply to all schools regardless of the size of the EL population. Research found both school principals and teachers may not have adequate training and professional development needed to meet the educational needs of English Learners (Kendall, 2006; Newman, Samimy, & Romstedt, 2010). These deficiencies only accentuate the disconnect between federal policy and local implementation and failure in accountability compliance.

Understanding the English Learner

Responsibility for school principals to bear the burden as instructional leaders in educating English Learners begins with understanding common characteristics of linguistically diverse students and how language is viewed in public schools. Studies have shown education is enhanced when language is viewed as a resource rather than viewed as a right to be granted or a problem to be fixed (Bunch, 2011; Cummins, 2012; Gonzales, 2009). When linguistic diversity is viewed as a resource within the classroom, student achievement improves and cultural assimilation of English Learners is enhanced (Cummins, 2011, 2012; DeCapau & Marshall, 2011; Figueroa, 2013; Rossell, 2006).

The research of Roth, Tobin, Carambo, and Dalland (2005) suggested unfamiliarity with second language acquisition and challenges in educating English Learners present real-time trials for school principals. Often school principals struggle to determine the difference between an English Learner who has yet to master English and an English Learner who has yet to master the content (Rossell, 2006). School principals have limited training in understanding the difference between the two proficiencies. This limitation is due to a lack of knowledge as to how their pedagogy to support English Learners is shaped by dominant cultural values and how English Learners respond to a western-style education (DeCapau & Marshall, 2011; Pereira & Gentry, 2013; Roth, Tobin, Carambo, & Dalland, 2005). Understanding the deep cultural differences impact the behaviors, beliefs, and values of school principals tasked with providing effective instruction for all learners (DeCapau & Marshall, 2011). Without the understanding of English Learners, school principals misunderstand student needs and make uninformed decisions (Brooks, Adams, & Morita-Mullaney, 2010).

A small body of literature is available in how school principals address instructional

needs of English Learners. Russell's (2012) yearlong qualitative case study analyzed the effectiveness of program implementation. Russell (2012) found school principals and teachers chose to schedule English Learners in linguistically, low-demanding academic classes as a means to meet the educational needs. Academic success was skewed if the academic expectations were low (Russell, 2012).

Researchers Cho and Reich (2008) concluded that English Learners learn English more effectively and efficiently while learning academic content simultaneously. The English language presented in core academic classes is more meaningful and authentic compared with language development classes. This intentional inclusion of English Learners in core academics in mainstream classes as much as possible throughout the school day and the practice to place the English Learners in higher academic classes highlighted the need for equity for linguistically diverse students (Cho & Reich, 2008). English Learners in mainstream classes have been marginalized and mostly ignored, yet a clear picture of how school principals should support the education of English Learners has not been provided (DeCapau & Marshall, 2011; Russell, 2012; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

To affirm the lack of research in how school principals support the education of English Learners, three findings emerged:

- the importance of a supportive principal leadership context for inclusion of English Learners and the English Learner Teacher's work;
- school-wide supports for English Learners; and
- collaboration and influence of the literacy team (Cho & Reich, 2008; Russell, 2012).

Yet from this small body of literature, school principals are found to have limited training, instructional expertise, and resources to effectively implement the provisions for instruction,

assessment, and accountability in Title III. Moreover, school principals often fail to comply with those mandates, place the responsibility to educate English Learners on the English Learner teacher, and misuse or misappropriate resources for English Learners (Baecher, Rorimer, & Smith, 2012; DeCapau & Marshall, 2011; Newman, Samimy, & Romstedt, 2010; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011).

Understanding How to Support the Education of English Learners

Prior to the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind*, the education of English Learners was by default the responsibility of the English Learner teacher. This default in responsibility was due to the negative impact of language barriers between English Learners and mainstream teachers, inadequate training for mainstream teachers to educate English Learners, and misconceptions about second language acquisition and linguistically diverse learners on student achievement (Berg et al., 2012; Newman, Sammiy & Romstedt, 2010). Educating English Learners begins with understanding common characteristics of linguistically diverse students and how language is viewed in public schools (Crawford, 2004; Goldenberg, 2008; Kendall, 2006; Willner, Rivera, & Acosta, 2008). Studies have shown education is enhanced when language is viewed as a resource rather than viewed as a right to be granted or a problem to be fixed (Cummins, 2011). When linguistic diversity is viewed as a resource within the classroom, student achievement improves and cultural assimilation of English Learners is enhanced (Cummins, 2011).

As academic achievement gaps widen and federal policy mandates for accountability increase, English Learner teachers can no longer bear this responsibility alone (Hakuta, 2011; Goals 2000, 1994; Goldenberg, 2008; Koyama, 2004). Studies on teacher perceptions found a lack of self-efficacy, a lack of collaboration, and a lack of administrative support to effectively

meet the educational needs of English Learners (Gandara & Baca, 2008; Menken, 2009; Newman et al., 2010; Kendall, 2006). The impact of federal mandates for English Learners raised teachers' awareness of the diverse needs of the population and the need for shared responsibility with school principals. deJong (2013) stated that "what earns legitimacy (what is valued) will be reflected in discourse practices (how we talk about things) as well as concrete actions such as formal policies and resource allocations" (p. 98). Resources for professional development, instructional technology, bilingual instruction, foreign language assistance, and response to rapid immigration of English Learners were allocated to enhance shared responsibility for the education of English Learners among teachers and school principals (Goals 2000, 1994; Improving America's Schools Act, 1994; No Child Left Behind, 2001).

A challenge for school principals in pre-emerging gateway states for immigration is the lack of infrastructure and support for English Learners within the mainstream classroom. There are not sufficient enrollment numbers in these communities to justify sheltered classrooms as a delivery model for educating English Learners (Newman et al., 2010). Therefore, school principals are faced with how to appropriately meet the educational needs of a growing population of English Learners, yet comparatively small percentage of the overall student population of districts throughout these new immigration destination states (Berg, Petron, & Greybeck, 2012; Brooks et al., 2010).

There is limited research describing how school principals use teacher training or professional development to meet the instructional needs of English Learners (Aguilar, Morocco, Parker, & Zigmond, 2006; Arkoudis, 2006; Brooks et al., 2010; Conderman, Johnston-Rodriguez, & Hartman, 2009; Pawan & Ortloff, 2010; Russell, 2012). Today, there are less than 150,000 teachers qualified to teach the five million English Learners nationwide (Pawan &

Ortloff, 2010). As a result, school principals must seek and provide appropriate professional learning opportunities as the population of English Learners continues to grow especially pre-emerging states for immigration in the Southeast and Midwest United States. School principals face the challenge to maximize available instructional resources within the school. This significant growth in the English Learner population has only intensified the need for school principals to address delivery of services and instruction, staffing, busing, academic intervention, and career readiness for English Learners (Berg et al., 2012; Pawan & Ortloff, 2010; Russell, 2012).

The School Principal's Agency with English Learners Summary

Some school principals may believe they effectively meet the educational needs of English Learners and, in actuality, some do meet those needs. However, research suggests that school principals may not have adequate training and professional development needed to meet the educational needs of English Learners (Chenowith, 2015; Cummins, 2011; DeCapau & Marshall, 2011; Kendall, 2006; McGuigan & Hoy, 2006; Murnane, 2007; Newman et al, 2010). The deficiencies in preparation of school principals to meet these needs only accentuates the disconnect between federal policy and local implementation and failure in accountability compliance. Equally, there are consequences for school principals who fail to implement the provisions within Title III (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011; Wright & Pu, 2005). While there have been studies that address the importance of teacher preparation and collaboration as well as studies that address instructional delivery models for English Learners, a narrative study of school principals' reflections as they struggled to meet the educational needs of English Learners under federal policy mandates can be a powerful addition to the literature, given the increasing

population of English Learners and the widening achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners.

A disconnect in the policy formulation and implementation is the lack of participation of school principals in that decision-making process. Policymakers craft a one-size-fits-all approach to education reform (Coady et al., 2003). Their knowledge base and accountability systems lack collaboration with those responsible for local implementation. Stringfield, Datnow, Ross, & Snively (1998) found that those making decisions may simply be unaware of appropriate instruction, assessment, and accommodations for English Learners. Datnow (2002) suggested the need for linguistic adaptability and curriculum design appropriate for English Learner's first language (L1), academic background, and cultural identity are pivotal for policy formulation. When all stakeholders understand the needs of English Learners, policy can effectively meet the education needs of this diverse and growing population (Coady et al., 2003; Datnow & Castellano, 2000; deJong, 2013; Hakuta, 2011; Menken, 2009; Walqui, 2000).

Ineffective policy implementation occurs when policymakers and government fail to understand the diverse population of English Learners, linguistic, cultural, and core academic needs (Menken, 2009). Thus, the future direction for public policy to meet the educational needs of English learners needs to be molded and shaped by embracing the diverse, growing population of English Learners, considering research-based alternative instructional and assessment approaches to teaching and learning, and viewing multilingualism and multiculturalism as a resource in America's public schools.

Theoretical Framework: Role Identity

A theoretical framework influences the approach used by the researcher to study a particular phenomenon in qualitative research (Anfara & Mertz, 2006). The theory frames what

the researcher considers and thinks about a study. Additionally, a theory frames how the researcher conducts the study. Anfara and Mertz (2006) suggested theory is no longer a product of qualitative research. Rather, theory or a theoretical framework is a process-oriented approach used by qualitative researchers to explain a reaction to a phenomenon.

For the purposes of this study, school principal's agency to support the education of English Learners was examined through the lens of Stryker's Role Identity. Stryker (1980) explains role identities as "self-conceptions, self-referent cognitions, or self-definitions that people apply to themselves as a consequence of the structural role positions they occupy" (p.2). These self-conceptions, cognitions, and definitions are grounded in the individual's ability to internalize and evaluate normative expectations relationally with the past and current experience (Hagelskamp, Hughes, Yoshikawa, & Chaudry, 2011; Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000).

Role identity is a micro-sociological theory that seeks to explain an individual's role or related behaviors within a specified phenomenon (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995). A design exists to explain the reciprocal role between self and society (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995). This identity role has implications for what one does and how one behaves, and may be undergirded and molded by a person's set of personal beliefs, values, and models. Hogg, Terry, and White (1995) and Burke (1980) suggested this theory focuses on the causes and consequences of identifying with a particular role, examines perspective that treats self as independent of and prior to society, and mediates the relationship between social structure and individual behavior.

These behaviors only occur when there is a reciprocal interaction between self and a phenomenon (Burke, 1980; Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 1980). For school principals, this phenomenon is the interpretation and implementation of Title III's provisions for instruction, assessment, and accountability. What a school principal does is not accidental. Rather, learning

about a school principal's identity requires leaning about self-hood, that is, what a school principal brings of self to the school (Elawar & Lizarraga, 2010). Hogg, Terry, and White (1995) found that the perspective of self-hood requires examining self as independent of and prior to the environment.

Of particular interest to this study is the examination of how a school principal views their role to support the education of English Learners independently before and after the passage Title III. Identity of a school principal's role related to the education of English Learners may be a combination of what he knows, that is, the prescription of Title III mandates, with the pedagogy he uses to interpret and implement those mandates. Variables such as years of experience, challenges, cultural contexts, and age may affect role identity (Elawar & Lizarraga, 2010). Identity Theory will offer a lens to examine the interaction of knowledge and pedagogy on the role of school principals to support the education of English Learners before and after the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind*.

Moreover, Hogg, Terry, and White (1995) found that the interaction of knowledge and pedagogy is affected by the environment. The interaction between self and the environment emphasizes engagement of self to plan, implement, or review behaviors or roles. Individuals interact with a phenomenon in an environment and are, therefore, responsible and accountable for that interaction. Cultural contexts, school demographics, curriculum and instruction, scheduling, and professionals within the school who work with English Learners are all environmental factors that may affect the principal's role. Understanding how a school principal interprets and implements federal policy is essential to understanding how that school principal meets the educational needs of English Learners (James & Jones, 2008).

From the review of literature on role identity within and outside the discipline of education, three themes emerged that transcend the use of role identity to examine the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners. These themes were the influence of other professionals who possessed expertise in a field of study on one's self identity. The second theme was a commitment to society as influential in one's self identity and efficacy to succeed. The third theme identified intrinsic motivation as influential on one's self-identity and behavior within a phenomenon.

Studies found that professionals recognized the influence of other professionals on their individual roles and behaviors (Elawar & Lizarraga, 2010; Hwang, 2010; Moss, Gibson, & Dollarhide, 2014). Elawar and Lizarraga (2010) found 76% of teachers surveyed articulated the influence of former teachers and colleagues as influential on their decision to become a teacher and their capacity to succeed. They cited the expertise of these former teachers and colleagues as evidence of their influence on role identity. Hwang (2010) tested the role of identity and gender in tech mediated learning and found self-identity most closely related to others in the same field who possess the knowledge and skills desired as motivation to succeed. Moss, Gibson, and Dollarhide (2014) found three of six themes from the study of professional identity among counselors most closely connected with gaining work experience and seeking help from others. They found the role of counselor was most influenced by a mentor, supervisor, or experienced guide to facilitate progress within the development of their professional development.

A second theme that emerged from the review of literature was a commitment to the subjects studied or individuals served by the role of the participants. Studies found that the identity of self and behaviors manifest within society were influenced by a desired commitment to society. The work of Elawar and Lizarraga (2010) found teachers believed that a commitment

to their students influenced the role of teachers. This commitment was named as source of motivation to improve teacher efficacy and student success. Hwang (2010) and Moss, Gibson, and Dollarhide (2014) found recognition of others was a motivational factor for self-efficacy and commitment to succeed in one's role.

A third theme found through the review of literature was intrinsic motivation as influential in the identity of self and establishment of behaviors within a society. Intrinsic motivation is crucial to the identity of self and the interaction with a certain phenomenon or others within an environment (Hwang, 2010).

Role Identity will be used to examine and analyze how principal roles and behaviors to meet the educational needs of English Learners were influenced by Title III. The theoretical framework will provide a lens through which to examine the role of principal as an instructional leader within the school to meet the needs of all students with the role of policy interpretation. I will examine and analyze each individual school principal's combination of what he knows, that is, the interpretation and prescription of Title III mandates, with the pedagogy each school principal uses to interpret and implement those mandates. Role expectation, role experiences, role relationships, and possible consequences of Title III prescription will be analyzed for each individual school principal. Effects of variables including, but not limited to, understanding of policy, years of experience, challenges, cultural contexts, influence of other professionals who possessed expertise in a field of study on one's self identity, self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, or age on role identity will be considered. Each school principal will be analyzed in-case to examine how the school principal's role as instructional leader to interpret and implement the prescription of Title III mandates may be influenced by self, other professionals who possess expertise in a field of study, commitment to society, and intrinsic motivation.

The rationale for using role identity is embedded in the potential variance in how a school principal interprets and implements the prescription of Title III mandates to support the education of English learners. Specifically, the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* ushered unprecedented mandates for academic expectations, instruction, assessment, and accommodations for English Learners. However, the federal government did not prescribe *how* school principals were to meet these mandates. The *how* was remanded to local interpretation and implementation with the expectation for compliance. Thus, to conduct an in-depth analysis of how school principals met the educational needs of English Learners necessitates a thorough analysis of the role of school principals before and after the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind*.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

After describing my search process, Chapter 2 began with a historical review of the legislation and litigation affecting education policies for English Learners since the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Literature on the equity and accessibility to education for English Learners was included. A discussion of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* reviewed changes in the identification of English Learners, challenges to support their education, and the prescription for local implementation of Title III. This literature provided the foundation for the purpose of this study which was to examine how the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* influenced the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners. There was one primary research question that guided this study.

1. How did the passage of Title III influence the agency of principals to support the education of English Learners?

The narrative of school principals who have approached this challenge both before and after the passage of Title III will add to the literature through their oral histories of working to support the education of English Learners.

Chapter 3 details the methodology that was applied to achieve the study's purpose. An explanation of the research methodology, intent and value of the design, and rationale for selection of a qualitative narrative inquiry follow. Specifications about site, participants, and sources of data are included. The researcher-developed semi-structured interview protocol is described as part of the data collection procedures. Details about analysis of data are shared followed by ethical safeguards, methods of verification, and the role of the researcher. The chapter concludes with a summary of the research methodology.

Research Design and Rationale

A qualitative narrative inquiry was used to meet the purpose of the study. The complexity of the qualitative narrative inquiry defies a simple definition. Qualitative narrative inquiry allows participants to deliver narrative accounts of their experiences and interactions, and in doing so, provide evidence about the everyday lives and the meanings they attach to those experiences. Embedded in qualitative narrative inquiry is the subjectivity of both the research and participant as an attempt is made to make sense of the world in which the participant is observed (Merriam, 2009). For this study, qualitative narrative inquiry was the method used to record oral histories of school principals who have worked to support the education of English Learners within their respective schools. Van Maanen (1979) defined qualitative research as an "umbrella term covering an array of interpretative techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in a social world" (p. 520). Merriam (2009) added that "qualitative researchers are interested in how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their worlds, and what meaning they attribute to their experiences" (p. 14). Thus, the design of qualitative research seeks to achieve an understanding of how people make sense of their lives, to understand the nature of that meaning, and be able to effectively communicate the participant's perspective (Creswell, 2013, 2014; Merriam, 2009; Rossman & Rallis, 2012).

Creswell (2014) supports the constructs of qualitative inquiry as a legitimate form of inquiry to describe real-life problems and give voice to marginalized participants. The purpose of qualitative inquiry is to understand a complex, detailed understanding of these participants in real-life scenarios (Merriam, 2009). Qualitative narrative inquiry will be used to give voice to school principals who describe the influence of Title III on their agency to support the education

of English Learners. Rossman and Rallis (2012) suggested qualitative inquiry advances reliability, usefulness, and strength in data collection to achieve the purpose of the study. The advancement of reliability is grounded in the collection of data from a comparatively small sample size of individuals. The strength of data collection in a qualitative inquiry is the result of depth of data collection from a small sample rather than breadth of data collection from a wide sample (Creswell, 2014; Merriam, 2009; Rossman & Rallis, 2012). Qualitative narrative inquiry tells the stories of participants and their interaction with a certain phenomenon (Merriam, 2009).

Qualitative narrative inquiry is designed to facilitate an understanding where the participants work and their interaction with the phenomenon examined. The researcher facilitates this understanding by delineating the context of site and participants. Participants are interviewed in their natural setting or interviewed after having interacted in the natural setting. Understanding the context of school principals and their stories will provide a more accurate story of how the passage of Title III influenced their ability to support the education of English Learners.

The process of qualitative narrative inquiry is inductive, reasoning from specific to general (Rossman & Rallis, 2012; Merriam, 2009). Inductive reasoning derives findings from the data in the form of themes, categories, concepts, patterns, or even theory about particular phenomena (Merriam, 2009). The product of qualitative narrative inquiry is rich with descriptions that advance the depth of understanding the findings (Rossman & Rallis, 2012: Merriam, 2009). Words and pictures (qualitative) rather than numbers (quantitative) are used to convey what the researcher has learned about a phenomenon through the primary data collection sources of interviews, documents, and observations (Creswell, 2014, 2013; Merriam, 2009; Rossman & Rallis, 2012; Merriam, 2009).

Qualitative narrative inquiry is characterized by the researcher's role as the primary instrument of data collection (Creswell, 2013, 2014; Merriam, 2009). The researcher is more than a mere instrument of data collection; the researcher is a learner who constructs meaning through contextual questions and participant biographies (Rossman & Rallis, 2012). Merriam (2009) cautioned the qualitative researcher to identify and monitor biases and subjectivities rather than eliminate them from the collection and interpretation of data. While collecting data, the researcher may respond immediately to expand, clarify, or check for accuracy (Creswell, 2014). Responsiveness of a researcher during data collection is a benefit of qualitative narrative inquiry.

This study employed a qualitative narrative inquiry to examine how the passage of Title III influenced the agency of school principals to support English Learner education. Figure 1 shows the design of my research. I analyzed oral histories of school principals before and after the passage of Title III. Participants' stories as a method of data collection represented their personal and social experiences with English Learners (Chan & Ross, 2014; Creswell, 2013; Johnson, 2009; Taylor & LaCava, 2011). Rossman and Rallis (2012) explained that qualitative narrative inquiry resides as part of the event or situated activity and not just as a method to describe the event. Thus, the rationale for qualitative narrative inquiry in this study allowed the researcher to collect the stories of these school principals, their challenges and successes to supporting English Learners, and how these personal experiences have been influenced by the passage of Title III.

The use of stories as data, and more specifically, first person accounts of experience told in story form are integral to this type of qualitative research design (Merriam, 2009). Thus, in this study, a first-person account recorded how Title III influenced the agency of principals to

address these challenges and prescription for local implementation, and in doing so, support the education of English Learners. Merriam (2009) stated that "Stories are how we make sense of our experiences, how we communicate with others, and through which we understand the world around us" (p. 32). Qualitative narrative inquiry is necessary in this study to best answer the research question proposed by making sense of the prescription for local implementation of Title III. Local implementation of Title III includes changes in the identification, understanding the instructional needs, and overcoming challenges to instruction, assessment, and academic achievement for English Learners. Prescription of these mandates provides understanding how school principals have supported the education of English Learners.

Qualitative narrative inquiry was used in this research to present the stories of four school principals who served before and after the passage of No Child Left Behind's Title III, examining the influence of that legislation on school principals' agency to support the education of English Learners. Figure 1 illustrates the design of the current study and how the purpose of the study and Stryker's Role Identity framed the essential research question. The research question guided the collection and analysis of the stories of the school principals, and thus, highlight the nuances of policy implementation. The assumption is that qualitative narrative inquiry facilitates understanding the complexities of school leadership practices and allows new or unanticipated information to emerge from the stories (Chan & Ross, 2014; Creswell, 2013; Gottlieb & Lasser, 2001; Johnson, 2009).

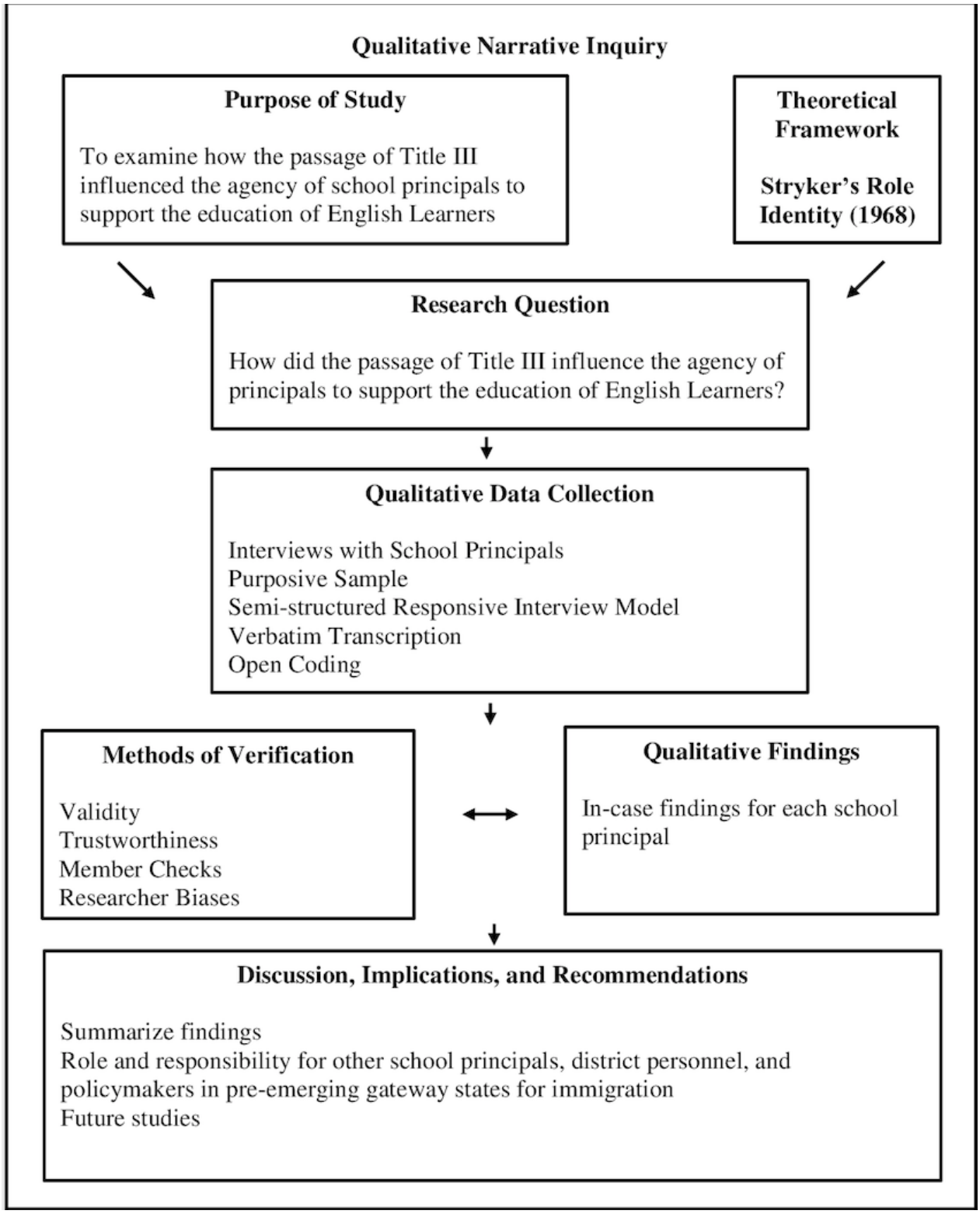

Figure 1. Research Design

Site and Participants

The selection of site and participants requires careful consideration to most effectively address the purpose of the study (Merriam, 2009). Site and participant selection and the rationale for that selection is critical for the researcher to optimally understand the particular phenomenon. Rossman and Rallis (2012) advised the study's site should be accessible and manageable for data collection, and where ethical and political considerations are not initially harmful to the study. Intentionality and transparency should be addressed to overcome criticism of selection of site and participants in qualitative narrative inquiry.

For this study, my objective was to find school principals who had served in an administrative capacity before and after the passage of Title III in a school district that had experienced a significant increase in the English Learner population since 2000. I researched English Learner population data in a state located in the southeastern United States that had experienced significant increase in the English Learner population. see Figure 2 for state English Learner population trends.

I employed a purposeful sampling process to examine, discover, understand, and gain insight for what Merriam (2009) described as in-depth, information-rich sampling from which the most can be learned from the participants. Participants were selected with intentionality and purpose to address the study's purpose; that is, to examine the influence of the passage of Title III on the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners.

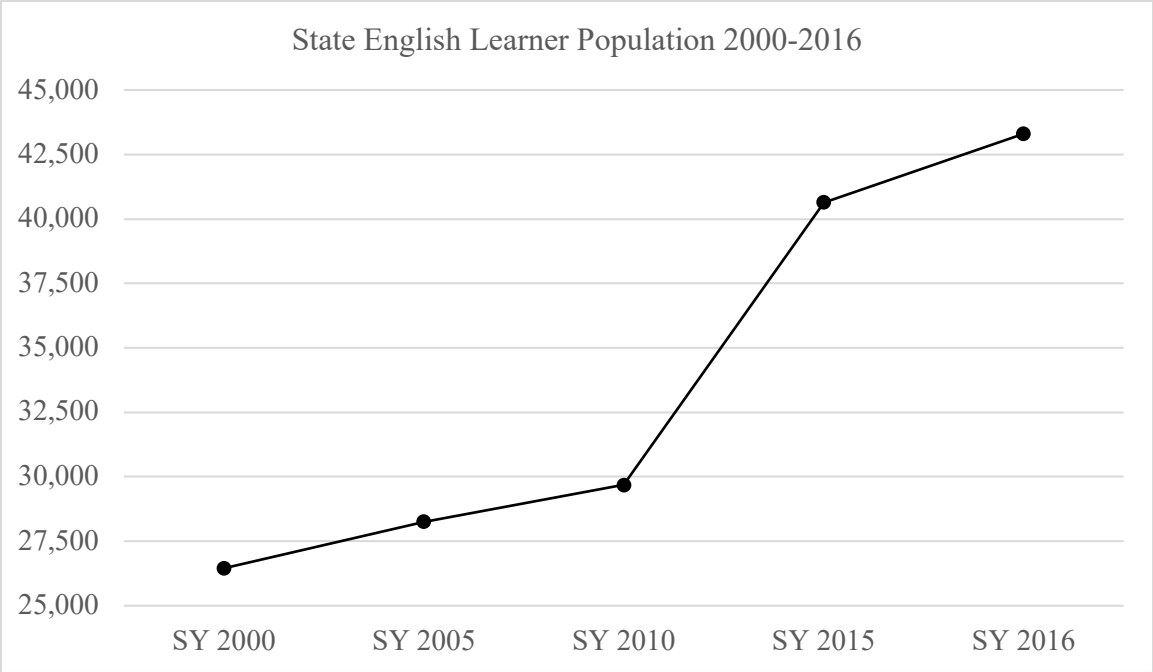

Figure 2. State English Learner Population by Year

Site

To meet the purpose of this study, I selected a state in the southeastern United States that had experienced a significant increase in the English Learner population, what Singer (2004) labeled a pre-emerging gateway state for immigration. Since 2000, this state has experienced more than a 200% increase in the population of English Learners in the state's public schools. Figure 2 illustrates the growth of the English Learner population by year in the selected state for this study. Convenience sampling was used in the selection of this state.

To narrow the search for sites within the state, I contacted the State Director of English Learner, Immigrant, and Migrant Programs to seek information regarding which school districts had experienced significant growth in the English Learner population. The Director informed me of the top three school districts that had experienced significant increase in the EL population over the past 16 years, based on her current knowledge. However, I was referred to the district report cards on the state's website and the State Office for Accountability to verify growth in the EL population in select sites.

I researched school districts for significant populations of English Learners through the district report cards on the state website. The search process was laborious, time-consuming, and inefficient. Data in the district report cards were only available for the previous three to five years. Since I needed longitudinal data predating the passage of Title III in 2001, I contacted the State Office for Accountability again to more efficiently collect data pertinent to English Learner populations. An office assistant in the Executive Director of Accountability's office instructed me to request data through State Department of Education's website.

I submitted two requests for data sets. First, I submitted an electronic request for school district data by English Learner population based on the October 2000 count. I submitted a

second electronic request for school district data by English Learner population based on the October 2016 count. Both data sets were emailed to me from the State Office of Accountability electronically through my university email address.

I manually uploaded both data sets in Microsoft excel and cross-analyzed the data to determine the school districts with the largest English Learner populations, the smallest English Learner populations, and the most significant percentage of change in English Learner population from 2000 to 2016. The top three districts by English Learner population over the 16-year period were Marshall, Nova, and Kiran School Districts. I excluded Marshall and Nova School Districts because these two districts had significant English Learner populations prior to the passage of Title III and the distance required to travel for data collection. I excluded Kiran School District because that district had the third largest English Learner population prior to the passage of Title III and because I previously worked in the Kiran School District.

Beyond the three largest school districts by English Learner population, I examined the remaining top seven school districts in the state with significant change in the English Learner populations over the 16-year period. Each of the seven districts had experienced more than 100% increase in the English Learner population. I ranked the seven school districts in order according to percent change in the English Learner population. Then, I ranked the seven school districts by proximity to travel for data collection. I decided that I would use this ranking, Hegel, Jochim, Scotney, Corcoran, Hubb, Wadale, and Reterkin School Districts to examine for participants who met the study's sampling criteria. Table 2 presents selected site demographics for Reterkin, Wadale, Jochim, and Corcoran School Districts that were ultimately selected based on participant selection.

Table 2. Selected Site Demographics

District	Reterkin	Wadale	Jochim	Corcoran
School	Slasor High School	Kellner Elementary School	Whett School	Edington Middle School
Participant	Dr. Runyon	Dr. Whitaker	Mr. Westheimer	Mr. Seborg
Community Type (rural, urban, suburban)	Suburban	Suburban	Rural	Urban
Grade	9-12	K-5	K-8	6-8
School-wide Student Enrollment	1974	729	816	448
Administrators	6	2	2	2
Certified Faculty	115	48	56	33
Certified English Learner Teachers	6	4	3	2

Participants

With the top seven sites ranked according to largest percent change in English Learner population over the 16-year period and proximity for data collection, I decided to contact three gatekeepers to facilitate my search for participants to meet the purpose of the study. I emailed the State Director of English Learner, Immigrant, and Migrant Programs, three executive board members of the State Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Language Association, and two district English as a Second Language supervisors. In the emails, I asked these six gatekeepers to help me identify participants for the study who had served in administration before and after the passage of Title III. Follow-up emails were necessary with these gatekeepers to clarify sampling criteria, share contact information, and facilitate introductions with potential participants.

Selection criteria for study participants included school principals in school districts with a significant increase in the English Learner population. These participants must have served at least one year in administration before and one year following the passage of Title III in 2001. The school principals could be active or retired with a minimum of five years of experience in public education and have passed the School Leaders Licensure Assessment or state equivalency test. Participants needed to be representative of the three community school types (rural, suburban, and urban) based on federal government guidelines.

The email responses from the six gatekeepers and my further research through individual school websites produced 11 potential participants who were thought to meet my study participant criteria. I searched public educator records through the state department of education website for those potential 11 study participants. As a secondary administrator with active status, I had professional access to additional information on that site not granted to the public. I was able to examine their professional administrator license to determine current employment status,

active or retired, date of issuance, date of advancement from beginner to professional license, type of licensure, teaching endorsements, and date of expiration if appropriate.

The process for examining public educator records yielded seven of the eleven potential participants as meeting the criteria for my study. The other four potential participants failed to meet the sampling criteria. Three of the other four potential participants did not serve as an administrator before the passage of Title III. Two of those four as well as the fourth potential participant did not serve schools that had experienced a significant growth in the population of English Learners since 2000. The remaining four potential participants had served for at one year in administration before and after the passage of Title III and had served a school that had experienced significant growth in the EL population. Table 3 presents changes in EL population for the four selected sites.

Recruitment emails to participate in the study were sent to all seven school principals who met the sampling criteria of the study. The recruitment email outlined the purpose of the study, sampling criteria, and research question to be addressed through this study, along with a potential timeline for data collection. see Appendix B for recruitment email. Participation was voluntary. I received positive responses from four of the school principals expressing willingness to participate in the study. I sent two additional emails to each of the three remaining potential study participants. One declined the invitation. Two never responded.

Table 3. Changes in English Learner Population for Selected Sites

District	Reterkin	Wadale	Jochim	Corcoran
School	Slasor High	Kellner Elementary	Whett School	Edington Middle
Participant	Dr. Runyon	Dr. Whitaker	Mr. Westheimer	Mr. Seborg
English Learner Population October 2000	31	10	20	0
English Learner Population October 2016	186	108	99	47
English Learner Teachers October 2000	1	1 (itinerant)	0.5 (half-time)	0
English Learner Teachers October 2016	6	4	3	2
English Learner Support Staff October 2000	0	0	0	0
English Learner Support Staff October 2016	1	0	1	0

I sent a second email to the four study participants who had accepted the invitation to participate. In the second email, I confirmed participation of each school principal, scheduled a date and time for the first interview, informed the participants that consent forms would be provided at the onset of the interview, and exchanged contact information. I informed the participants that consent forms would be emailed to them for review before the first interview and then signed at the onset of the interview.

Collectively, the participants have served in the public education for 142 years, 95 of those in school administration. None of these participants taught English Learners. Dr. Runyon served three schools during his tenure and has since returned to the classroom to teach for the remainder of his career. Dr. Runyon served the same school, Slasor High School, before and after the passage of Title III. Dr. Whitaker served 19 of her 25 years at Kellner Elementary School. She retired from Kellner Elementary in June 2019, but has since returned to a different school in the same school district as an interim principal for the remainder of the 2019-2020 school year. Mr. Westheimer served as teacher, assistant principal, and principal at Whett School for 34 years. He retired in June 2019. Finally, Mr. Seborg served numerous schools as a teacher and two different schools as an administrator. He served Corcoran Elementary before and after the passage of Title III, leaving in 2006 to serve in the district's central office. Mr. Seborg has since retired from his last position as assistant superintendent for the district. see Table 4 for school principal demographics.

Table 4. School Principals Demographics

School Principal	Dr. Runyon	Dr. Whitaker	Mr. Westheimer	Mr. Seborg
Active Status	Active	Active	Retired	Retired
Years in Education	26	45	34	37
Years in Administration	16	26	27	26
Years in Teaching	10	19	7	11
Highest Education Degree	Ph.D.	Ed.D.	Ed.S.	Ed.S.
Administrative License	483 Prof Admin PreK12	482 Prof Admin PreK12	482 Prof Admin PreK12	482 Prof Admin PreK12
Endorsements	013 Math 7-12	013 Math 7-12 109 Admin Sup K8 110 Admin Sup 7-12	019 Health and PE K12 109 Admin Sup K8	421 History 7-12 109 Admin Sup K8 110 Admin Sup 7-12
Ethnicity	White	White	White	White
Gender	Male	Female	Male	Male

Data Collection and Instrumentation

Protocol Pilot Test

I emailed the interview protocol to three professors at my university to serve as content validity experts. Each professor emailed a response with feedback and suggestions. Revisions to the interview protocol were made based on their feedback. The interview protocol consisted of five questions. The five questions generated stories based on the topics of school leadership, education of English Learners before and after the passage of Title III, accountability, and lessons learned. The same interview protocol was used for each participant in the study. The interview protocol can be found in Appendix A.

Once the interview protocol was revised and approved, I contacted the directors of schools representing the two districts of Dr. Runyon and Dr. Whitaker to seek permission to collect data. Requests for permission were emailed to the respective director of schools and permission was granted electronically as well. Since the remaining two participants, Mr. Westheimer and Mr. Seborg, were retired, I did not need to seek permission to collect data beyond the informed consent.

Data Collection

After the four participants were chosen, permission granted by directors of schools, and the IRB application was filed and approved by The University of Tennessee, I was prepared to begin data collection. Consent forms were emailed to the four participants prior to the interviews and then signed at the onset of the first interview. The interviews were conducted face to face at Dr. Runyon and Dr. Whitaker's respective schools where each served as school principal. Though Mr. Westheimer had retired in June 2019, he invited us to conduct the interviews at his

former school office. Mr. Seborg, retired school principal and assistant superintendent, and I mutually agreed to conduct his interview off site from any school at his son's house.

Data were collected from the participants through multiple, semi-structured interviews to examine how the passage of Title III influenced the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners. The semi-structured interviews created flexibility for the researcher to expand responses. Each participant was interviewed on multiple occasions, no more than three occasions, to expand and delve deeper into the oral histories of the participants. The interview protocol was researcher designed to effectively guide the school principals to tell their oral histories of supporting English Learner education before and after the passage of Title III.

Interviews were audio recorded with an OlympusWS-100 64 MB voice recorder with USB interface to ensure the integrity of the dialogue and to ensure preservation of transcription. Recording each interview enabled me to focus on the integrity of the interview, ask follow-up or clarifying questions essential to telling the stories of school principals, and remain engaged in the process. Data were collected privately between the researcher and each participant. Each audio recording was downloaded within 24 hours following the interview from the Olympus voice recorder to a personal MacBook that is password protected and then transferred to my university Google Drive for confidentiality of those recordings.

The length of the first interview with each participant was approximately two hours. The duration of the second and third interviews, as needed, did not exceed an hour respectively. All interviews were completed in less than 18 weeks. The first two interviews were with Dr. Runyon and Dr. Whitaker. Both were located in the same geographical area of the state. Mr. Westheimer was the third interview. I had to complete his second interview the following week because of his schedule. Second round interview were completed for Dr. Runyon and Dr. Whitaker on the

same day. Mr. Seborg was the final interview. Mr. Seborg and I met three times. The use of multiple interviews on different days provided the opportunity to review audio recordings and ensure that I collected appropriate data and context to tell their stories.

Data Analysis

Data collected through the semi-structured interview sought to examine how the passage of Title III influenced the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners. Reissman (2008) stated "data collected in a narrative study need to be analyzed for the story they have to tell, a chronology of unfolding events, and turning points" (p. 11). Data were uploaded using InqScribe voice recognition software. Using a voice recognition software program enabled me to slow the rate of speech to ease the challenge of transcribing the interview. Verbatim transcription minimized researcher error in recording the stories of the school principals. The transcriptions were read while listening to the audio recording of each interview to ensure accuracy. The process required deliberate and purposeful attention to carefully examine each transcription.

Once transcriptions were reviewed for accuracy, the transcriptions of the four interviews were printed for open coding. I used multiple colored highlighters to code data within the transcriptions. Responses were coded based on emergent data that sought to identify the role and stories of school principals to support the education of English Learners.

Responses were examined and analyzed in-case for each school principal within the role to support the education of English Learners. A code map was constructed and final iterations are seen in Table 5. The initial 90 codes were collapsed into 15 categories. Those 15 categories were reviewed and collapsed into three emerging themes (stories and epiphanies) based on the data (Creswell, 2013; Rossman & Rallis, 2012). The stories and epiphanies were analyzed to interpret

the larger meaning of the story to present a narrative re-storying focused on the processes, theories, and unique features of school principals' ability to meet the educational needs of English Learners both before and after the passage of Title III (Creswell, 2013; Reissman, 2008).

Table 5. Final Iterations: Themes

Research Question		
How did the passage of Title III influence the agency of principals to support the education of English Learners?		
Final Iteration: Themes		
Exigency for English Learners	Availability of Resources	Student Outcomes
Second Iteration: Categories		
Need to Understand LEP	Strains on School Infrastructure	Shortage of District or State Supports
Inconsistent Identification	Limited Viable Curriculum and Instruction	Unfamiliarity with Policy
Cultural and Linguistic Barriers	Lack of Professional Training	Negative Effects on School Achievement
Interrupted Previous Education	Need for Qualified Staff	Division of Leadership
Struggle to Assimilate	Scarcity of Resources	Sense of Urgency
First Iteration: Initial Codes		
Lack of Diversity	No Progress Monitoring	Unfamiliar with Policy
Immigrant Status	Need Teacher Training	Do Not Possess a Copy of the Policy
Impoverished Families	Expected to Provide PD	Wear Multiple Hats
Feel Isolated	Itinerant English Learner teacher	Feel Unheard
Cannot Communicate with Parents	Teachers Look to Principal for Help with Instruction	Meet Academic Standards
Students as Interpreters	Changes in English Learner: Teacher Ratio	Exemption from Assessments
Influx of English Learners	Disconnected Grade Levels	Read Alouds
Affordable Housing	Lack of Qualified English Learner teachers	Extra Time
Proximity to Jobs	Lack of Proctors	Small Groups
Parent Engagement	Need English Learner teacher Pipeline	Decrease in Achievement
Interrupted Formal Education	Decision about Staffing	Academic Language
No Education Records	Containment of English Learners	Survival English
Age Appropriate Placement	Delivery Model	Retention of English Learners
Conversational English	Variance in Instruction	Limited District Support

Table 5. Final Iterations: Themes Continued

Language Survey	Limited Access to Materials	Unfamiliar with ESL Testing
Placement	Inclusion	Familiar with English as a Second Language Standards
Lack of Content Knowledge	Pull- Out	Identified as a Subgroup
Limited Background Knowledge	Push-In	Never Read Title III Policy
Build Relationships	Difficulties with Scheduling	Unattainable Goals
No Sense of Community	Contained	Unreasonable Timeline
Inconsistency	Integrated	Limited District Supports
Linguistic Barriers to Parent Involvement	English for Academic Purposes	Administrator Burnout
Need for Parent Education	Mainstream classes	One Size Doesn't Fit
Distrust us	Lost Instructional Time	Excluded from Decisions
Immigrant Status	Related Arts	Top Down Leadership
Limited English Proficiency	Limited Space for English As A Second Language Classroom	Lonely at the Top
Behavioral Struggles	Test in Principal Office	Lack of Action Steps
Never Attended Formal School	Sense of Urgency	Lack of Funding
School Culture	Differentiation	Security Breach
No Information about Incoming	Can't Analyze Data	No Professional Association
Lose Cultural Identity	No Shared Plan Time	Autonomy
Cannot Come to the School	Overwhelmed	Delegation of Tasks
Non-verbal Cues	Does Not Hire English Learner Staff	Included in State Report Card
Lack of Context	Loss of Instructional Time	Check the Box
Political Motivation	Use of Elementary Materials	Title I
Need Acculturation before Academics	English for Academic Purposes	Negative Impact on School Report Card
Front Office not bilingual	Controlled	Limit Spending
	Apathy	Avoidance
	Not our Problem	Narrow Gap
	Focused Scheduling	Time Lapse from Policy to Implementation
	Cleaning Out the Corners	No Class Offered about English Learners in Principal Preparation
		Unprepared
		Just Fix It

Ethical Safeguards

Ethical safeguards and considerations were addressed through the Institutional Review Board (IRB), consent, confidentiality, and professional courtesy. I sought permission to conduct the study and collect data through the IRB. Informed consent was collected from gatekeepers (director of schools) as well as from the participants. Informed consent forms were emailed to the gatekeepers (director of schools) a month prior to data collection. Informed consent forms were presented and signed by the participants at the onset of the interviews. Consent forms were kept confidentially in a locked cabinet in the Department of Education Leadership and Policy Studies at The University of Tennessee for three years after completion of my study. Privacy for the participants, confidentiality for shared information, sensitivity to the interview environment, and a core of personal values facilitated ethical safeguards and considerations in the study

Confidentiality of the audio recordings and audio files was maintained by the researcher. Each audio recording was downloaded within 24 hours following the interview from the Olympus voice recorder to a personal MacBook that is password protected and then transferred to my university Google Drive for confidentiality of those recordings. The audio recordings and files were destroyed one year after completion of the study. Confidentiality for the sites and participants was met through assignment of pseudonyms, what Gottlieb and Lasser (2001) implied was one of the most critical attributes of qualitative narrative inquiry.

Methods of Verification

The four methods of verification for this study included validity, trustworthiness, member checking, and an audit trail. Validity of the semi-structured interview protocol were addressed through pilot testing the interview questions (Creswell, 2013; Rossman & Rallis, 2012). Merriam (2009) describes validity as the degree to which interview responses differ from the actual

experiences of the participants. Core questions bounded on the front end of an interview releases the participant to speak freely throughout the remainder of the interview (Creswell, 2013; Merriam, 2009). The use of follow-up or clarifying questions will seek to close the gap between interview responses and actual experiences of the participants.

Another method of verification addressed by the researcher was trustworthiness in the researcher through data collection. Trustworthiness was achieved by clarifying researcher bias from the outset of the study (Merriam, 2009; Rossman & Rallis, 2012). This step allowed the researcher to comment on past experiences, opinions, and biases that may shape interpretation of the data.

A third method of verification was member checking. Member checking strengthens the accuracy of the participants' responses by providing the participants an opportunity to review transcripts (Creswell, 2013, 2014; Merriam, 2009; Rossman & Rallis, 2012). Variance and flexibility in questioning provide greater insight, and thus, strengthens the trustworthiness of the conversation. All of these checks minimize the ability of the researcher to co-construct realities based on personal biases and interaction with the participants in a social setting or personal environment and strengthen the focus on the participants' perspectives, realities, and stories.

The fourth method of verification was the use of an audit trail. Audit trails are records of the process of conducting qualitative research. The audit trail will be used to record what I see, hear, do, and think during the study through the collection of field notes. Audit trails will likewise be used to record under-valued or under-reported information, lack of information, or non-verbal silence.

Role of the Researcher

The researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis (Merriam, 2009). The role of researcher may be subjective and contain biases that may affect the study. Merriam (2009) suggests the need to clarify the role of the researcher by identifying these biases rather than eliminate them.

Creswell (2013) stated data collection in qualitative narrative inquiry is shaped by the personal, cultural, and historical experiences of the researcher. As the researcher, I have spent the last fifteen years as an English Learner teacher and secondary school assistant principal. Much of my experience supporting English Learners will shape my interpretation of the data as I position myself in the personal constructs of the study. The manifestation of this "positioning" affords the researcher with the opportunity to make sense of the meanings that these school principals describe. With a vested interest in the education of English Learners, maintaining objectivity in data collection is essential to the validity of the study.

The recognition of my experiences, background, and education are identified as potential biases in data collection. I avoided the desire to draw conclusions based on personal interpretation and allow the stories to stand as a source of information, guidance, and direction. Reflexivity was a necessity to address avoidance of personal interpretation in the study. Merriam (2009) described reflexivity as reflection of the researcher's role coupled with personal experiences critical to minimize bias in the collection of data. The objective is not to eliminate the bias of the researcher, but rather, to understand how the researcher's values influence the study (Creswell, 2014; Merriam, 2009). I increased my knowledge and minimized inaccuracies through literature reviewed. I selected Stryker's Role Identity as a lens to examine the participants' stories. Peer-reviewed interview protocols limited researcher subjectivity. Thus, the

role of the researcher in the instrumentation of data collection is a recognized strength and weakness of my use of qualitative narrative inquiry.

Conclusion

A qualitative narrative inquiry was employed to meet the purpose of the study in examining the influence of the passage of *No Child Left Behind's* Title III on school principals' agency to support the education of English Learners. Interviews will be conducted on site with four school principals who served in that administrative capacity before and after the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind*. These interviews were examined through the lens of Stryker's Role Identity. The theoretical framework of Role Identity will delve deeply into the process of self-identification for school principals based on their past and current experiences to interpret and implement federal policy mandates for educating English Learners.

In the following chapter, I will present the context and the findings of the qualitative data from each principal respectively. Background for each school principal will include education and experience, type of school, biographical data, and status at the time of the passage of Title III. Description of the findings from the interviews for each school principal, coding of interviews, and extraction of themes will be presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Chapter 3 presented the methodology applied to achieve the study's purpose, which was to examine the influence of the passage of Title III on the agency of school principals to support English Learner Education. Following an explanation of qualitative narrative inquiry, specifications about site, participants, and sources of data were shared. A researcher-developed protocol was employed to conduct semi-structured interviews. Details about analysis of data, ethical safeguards, methods of verification, and role of researcher concluded the chapter.

Chapter 4 presents the findings from the qualitative data from four school principals respectively who served in that capacity before and after the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* in 2001. A description of the education and experience, biographical information, and active status at the time of the passage of Title III for each school principal will be presented. For purposes of this chapter, English Learner or EL identifies the student, while English as a Second Language identifies the program or class of study. The teacher for English Learners is identified as the English Learner teacher. The school principal's agency to support the education of English Learners will be presented across three themes, which include Exigency for English Learners, availability of resources, and student outcomes.

Case 1: Dr. Runyon

According to Dr. Runyon, the selection of educator as his profession and life career was heavily influenced by a high school Algebra II teacher. He knew before high school graduation that he would pursue mathematics. His father, who did not attend college, was regarded by family and colleagues as having a high math intellect and unintentionally became the benchmark by which Dr. Runyon measured his academic prowess. According to Dr. Runyon, he was not the

most prolific math scholar in high school. He shared, “I had to work at it (Algebra II), but really Mrs. Stratford and my dad were very influential in my decision to become a teacher.”

After high school Dr. Runyon joined the Unites Stated National Guard and earned his bachelor’s degree under the G.I. Bill. He applied for his first teaching position, but was not initially hired by the principal. He was told by the school principal that he preferred to hire a person of color to teach math at the school comprised entirely of students of color. Within a week, Dr. Runyon was offered and accepted the job with stipulations. “The principal called to offer me the job the next day and in the same conversation, told me I was to attend a multi-cultural picnic with the faculty,” said Runyon. In the early nineties in the southeastern U.S., the instructional perception was a teacher taught the subject and not the student. Dr. Runyon credits his short tenure at this high school with a diverse student population as his introduction to working with a marginalized population.

The following year, Dr. Runyon received an offer to teach at a high school closer to his hometown. He spent the next six years in that role, teaching applied mathematics, geometry, and calculus while he earned his master’s degree and Education Specialist degree in K12 administration. His students were mostly Caucasian from middle class, suburban families. The high school had a few international students, most of whom were children of visiting professors at the state university nearby or children of visiting engineers at a local industry. These international students did not require academic support or accommodation, as he recalled.

He was seven years into his career as an educator, had earned two advanced degrees, and was ready to transition into administration. “I figured I probably knew more about running a school than my principal did, which if you know him, says something because he (the principal) is a legend around here,” explained Runyon. Dr. Runyon was hired in the first of two tenures as

an administrator at Slasor High School. He was first hired as an assistant principal at Slasor High School in 2000 where he was responsible for student discipline, career and technical education, and athletic administration as immediate areas of supervision and oversight. He indicated the overall student population at Slasor in 2000 was mostly white, non-Hispanic with approximately 30 English Learners, a statistic that would change significantly by his return to Slasor. Dr. Runyon served as an assistant principal for six years at Slasor High School.

A change in administration at Slasor High School was the catalyst for Dr. Runyon to leave Slasor for Rendell Middle School. One of the assistant principals and colleague to Runyon at Slasor was tapped as the head principal of the new middle school in the district. Dr. Runyon shared that the enticement of opening a new school was too much to pass. “It took a bit for me to do that (leave Slasor for Rendell),” recalled Runyon as he was more comfortable working in upper secondary education. As the only assistant principal at the new Rendell Middle School, Dr. Runyon’s administrative duties were expanded. He continued to oversee student services and discipline, however, he assumed master scheduling, facilities and maintenance oversight, and professional development. The experience with developing the master schedule would prove beneficial later in his career working with English Learners. Dr. Runyon spent six years before yet another change in administration would prompt his return to Slasor High School.

“When I returned to Slasor, there was a noticeable change in the ethnic make-up of the student body,” said Runyon. “I would walk the hallway and see an international boy walk past me,” he went on to say. There was consistent growth in the school-wide and English Learner populations at Slasor High School after the passage of Title III. By 2016, Slasor High School had a school-wide population of 1831 students, 186 of whom were English Learners. Slasor employed 115 certified teachers, 6 English Learner teachers, 6 administrators, and 1

paraprofessional interpreter on staff. Dr. Runyon attributed the significant growth in the English Learner population to a rapid immigration of Karen refugees from Burma.

One final change to his career in education occurred in 2018 upon the retirement of his principal at Slasor High School. “I had always thought when he retired, I would return to teaching for my last four or five years,” explained Runyon. Dr. Runyon reached out to a former student who served as principal at Hutten High School in Reterkin School District. “She thought I was joking at first,” Runyon added. After a lengthy conversation, Dr. Runyon convinced his former student that he was interested in the vacancy for an applied mathematics teacher at Hutten. After 16 years in administration, Dr. Runyon cited burnout as his primary reason for a desire to return to the classroom. At the time of this study, Dr. Runyon was in his third year of teaching (post-administration). Collectively, he served 12 years as school administrator at Slasor High School, one of the selected sites for this study due to the significant growth in the English Learner population after the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind.*

Exigency for English Learners Pre-Title III

Before Title III passage, there was a small population of approximately 30 English Learners at Slasor High School. The English Learners were Hispanic and spoke Spanish or a regional dialect from their native country of Mexico or Guatemala. There was no formal identification process at Slasor High School to determine which of these Hispanic students qualified for English as a Second Language services. Dr. Runyon did not recall how his staff at Slasor High School identified English Learners. “You know, it was pretty obvious if the kid came in not able to speak English that we needed to do something in ESL (English as a Second Language),” Runyon recalled. “I don’t mean that to sound bad, but you know, that’s all we knew to do.” Identification of English Learners was based more on looks, last name, or language.

Proof of residency, birth certificate, social security number, and health/ immunization records were common documentation required from all incoming students, including English Learners.

Most of the time when a new student arrived, the main office staff or the guidance office staff received the student for identification and placement. The English Learner teacher was usually unavailable as she was teaching the other English Learners. The staff would attempt to register the English Learner and schedule classes for the student. Sometime later, the English Learner teacher would meet with the new student. Dr. Runyon explained that he was sure that the English Learner teacher conducted some survey or test to diagnose the English proficiency of the English Learner. Consequently, English Learners and their parents suffered through lack of and miscommunication with the staff at Slasor during identification.

The challenge beyond identification of English Learners was registration for classes at Slasor. Dr. Runyon proposed two reasons for the challenge of communication with parents during registration. First, the parents or guardians were not proficient in English. Dr. Runyon explained that no one in the main office or the guidance office at Slasor was bilingual. “We had no way to talk with them (parents) other that trying to speak enough conversational English with the students,” said Dr. Runyon. Dr. Runyon and his staff relied on student translation to communicate with the parents. He would often locate an older student at Slasor who was bilingual or the English Learner to translate for the parents. The reliance on student translation sometimes proved inaccurate or inconsistent.

Second, some of the parents or guardians were illiterate in Spanish. Thus, a bilingual interpreter for Spanish would have been impractical. The students who often translated were unable to translate from a regional dialect to Spanish to English with those parents who were illiterate in Spanish. Dr. Runyon explained that the staff at Slasor did not have the linguistic

skills to communicate with limited English proficient parents regarding identification and registration of English Learners.

Beyond the limited English proficiency and lack of adequate translation services, there were several barriers to appropriately address course registration, previous school records, immunization, and qualifications for English as a Second Language services. Some of the English Learners had interrupted formal education where there were periods of time that the student was not attending school in a native country. Some English Learners attended school in districts where the length of a school year was shorter than Slasor High School. These English Learners possessed strong conversational English skills, but lacked the academic language to be successful in an English-speaking high school. The staff at Slasor found the strong conversational skills misleading and resulted in inappropriate placement in some academic classes. These barriers confounded the staff's ability to communicate with English Learners and parents. "We felt disconnected and ignored," explained Runyon.

Most English Learners were contained in the same classroom for two 90-minute blocks of English as a Second Language classes. Slasor operated on a 4x4 block schedule with four classes per day lasting approximately 90 minutes. The English Learner teacher taught conversational English and basic vocabulary through games, songs, and activities. "Those (English Learners) who were among the brightest were fortunate to be placed in a math class or mainstreamed," according to Dr. Runyon. The English Learners who did not attend a math class or who were mainstreamed in general education classes attended the 3-hour long English as a Second Language class followed by lunch and a related arts class, i.e., visual art, choir, physical education.

Exigency for English Learners Post-Title III

Dr. Runyon noticed a change in the English Learner population a year after his return to Slasor High School. “I remember walking down the hallway thinking, ‘hey, we have a population boom,” Runyon stated. The English Learner population grew and diversified significantly after the Title III passage from 2008 to 2012. The population of English Learners included immigrants and refugees from Mexico, Guatemala, Japan, China, South Korea, and Burma. According to Dr. Runyon, approximately 75% of the English Learners were Karen refugees from Burma by 2012.

Title III required a consistent and non-biased identification protocol for English Learners. Much of the guessing game associated with identification of English Learners before the passage of Title III was removed and replaced with a language survey post-Title III passage. Staff at Slasor could no longer request a copy of the birth certificate or social security number during the registration process. Immunization records and proof of residency were still required from English Learners registering for school. Dr. Runyon explained that changes in what staff could or could not request as proof of residency or citizenship from English Learners during registration took a couple of years with which to fully comply. Non-compliance was based on staff forgetting to abide by the new policy or new staff unfamiliar with the policy.

The language survey as mandated by Title III for consistent and non-discriminatory practices appeared on the registration form. The survey asked three questions about language first spoken, language spoken most often, and language spoken in the home. If any answer was a language other than English, the student was tested for English proficiency and qualifications for English as a Second Language services. The placement test mandated by the State Department of Education was administered by the English Learner teacher. Furthermore, Title III required the

services of a qualified English Learner teacher to identify and test English Learners for English as a Second Language services.

In response to Title III mandate for effective communication with parents in a language they could understand and the significant growth in the English Learner population, Dr. Runyon hired an additional English Learner teacher. Title III mandated the school and district provide written and oral communication with parents of English Learners in a language the parents could understand. Dr. Runyon hired a paraprofessional who was bilingual and could speak in the tonal language of the Karen refugees. The addition of the paraprofessional improved the staff's ability to understand the learner, obtain information about the educational history or background of a student, determine personal interests for selection of classes, and create a schedule for the English Learners. Dr. Runyon indicated that the school failed to comply completely with the mandate for all forms of communication with parents of English Learners in a language they could understand.

Dr. Runyon explained that a local pastor and congregants of a Burmese speaking church improved the school staff's ability to communicate with parents under the requirements of Title III. When a new Karen refugee from Burma arrived at Slasor for registration, the pastor or a bilingual member of the congregation would accompany the new student and parents. "We now had someone in the community that understood our predicament and knew what the students were going though coming to our school," Dr. Runyon explained. The pastor or bilingual member from the church's congregation cooperated with the paraprofessional om staff at Slasor.

Availability of Resources Pre-Title III

Dr. Runyon discussed a lack of resources to meet the needs of English Learners at Slasor High School. The lack of resources included classroom space, staffing, English as a Second

Language curriculum, scheduling, translation services, and professional development for mainstream teachers. Scarcity of these resources were based on the relatively small population of English Learners at Slasor or the staff's lack of knowledge or understanding about English Learners. Resources often lacked funding or administrative oversight critical to full implementation. Dr. Runyon explained that the resources may have more than one limitation that affected the availability.

The staff at Slasor did not initially provide a full-sized classroom for English Learners due to a lack of available empty classrooms and the small population of English Learners per class period. The requirement for a classroom space was a Reterkin School District decision. A central office supervisor from the Reterkin School District instructed Dr. Runyon to locate a more suitable classroom environment for learning. The first classroom was a small storage room beside the in-school suspension room. He suggested that the class was out of sight, out of mind. "Her (English Learner teacher) kids (English Learners) were sweet and never in my sight for discipline or behavior," he recalled. Having the classroom for English Learners next to the in-school suspension room was viewed as more about compliance with a central office directive to find a location within the building and less about finding a location conducive to teaching and learning for English Learners.

Staffing was limited at Slasor before the passage of Title III. The school had one English Learner teacher who was an itinerant teacher. The English Learner teacher taught two classes at Slasor and then served additional schools within the district. In 2000 Dr. Runyon recalled receiving a call from the Reterkin School District central office that there would be a new English Learner teacher assigned to Slasor High School. He confessed he really did not know the English Learner teacher and couldn't recall if she was bi-lingual. Dr. Runyon had no input into

the hiring of the English Learner teacher. Moreover, prior to Title III, there were insufficient funds to hire additional staff based on the English Learner population at Slasor.

The curriculum employed by the English Learner teacher was mostly teacher-developed. The State Department of Education provided performance indicators to measure English proficiency, but the curriculum used to teach those standards varied among school and school districts. The English Learner teacher taught conversational English, survival vocabulary including colors, calendar, numbers and sight words, and elementary math. Dr. Runyon remembered a writing class for English Learners among the teacher-developed curriculum. Dr. Runyon stated that the English as a Second Language class counted as an elective credit. Some of the English Learners attended a math class where they earned a credit. An art class or a physical education class would have fulfilled a student's schedule with two blocks of English as a Second Language class and two elective classes.

English Learners were often ignored or excluded in classes at Slasor notably due to a small population of English Learners and a large contingency of teachers at Slasor who were ill-equipped to accommodate instruction for English Learners. Dr. Runyon explained that the small population of English Learners were often overlooked in mainstream classes because there were so few within one class. The same was not true for English as a Second Language instruction. English Learners learned basic English and culture skills in a self-contained classroom with a room full of other English Learners.

"They (mainstream teachers) were afraid, maybe a bit threatened, by the kids (English Learners)," stated Dr. Runyon. The teachers' lack of cultural and linguistic understanding fostered that fear and often left the English Learners feeling isolated within the mainstream classroom. Dr. Runyon added he was unsure that the teachers were completely wrong for these

feelings of fear and threat especially as related to instruction and accountability. There were several mainstream teachers who preferred not to have English Learners in their classroom because they were unfamiliar with effective instructional strategies and accommodations appropriate for English Learners. Teachers expressed concern with the potential for negative impact on achievement scores and accountability due to the limited English proficiency and lack of appropriate instructional strategies for English Learners in mainstream classes.

Dr. Runyon confessed that he while he empathized with teacher concerns, he was committed and unshaken in his resolve that English Learners had the right to be taught. His military background and rule-following philosophy removed any possibility of uncertainty where he stood with a responsibility for English Learners. Though he didn't understand what the English Learners needed or how to instruct them, Dr. Runyon believed time spent by the English Learner teacher and the English Learners in a self-contained classroom was positive.

There was no formal training or professional development for a mainstream teacher who taught a core academic course with English Learners in the classroom. Dr. Runyon explained he was unaware of any professional development or training that the State Department of Education offered at that time. He knew Reterkin School District could not provide training for his mainstream teachers. He explained that his experience and expertise in instructional strategies for the classroom did not translate to appropriate differentiated instruction or accommodations appropriate for the needs of English Learners. Dr. Runyon felt inadequately qualified to present professional development or training about the support of English Learner education.

Dr. Runyon explained that the English Learner teacher was the best source of information and professional expertise to provide English as a Second Language services to English Learners prior to Title III passage. The English Learner teacher provided professional development and

training in basic cultural differences and understanding the backgrounds of the English Learners at Slasor. The English Learner teacher had limited time available to train mainstream teachers in how to accommodate English Learners in the mainstream classrooms because the English Learner teacher taught a full load of English as a Second Language classes. “Our professional development between mainstream and English Learner teachers were five minutes of conversation on the fly,” quipped Dr. Runyon. He proceeded to explain that while the English Learner teacher could teach English to the English Learners, he was not convinced that the English Learner teacher knew how to connect the academic language required for English Learners to be successful in high school. Without the available resources to effectively train mainstream teachers, Dr. Runyon feared the English Learners would continue to struggle academically at Slasor High School.

Availability of Resources Post Title III

Upon Dr. Runyon’s return to Slasor High School in 2012, the population of English Learners had increased significantly from approximately 30 to over 100 active English Learners. Staffing for English Learner education included two English Learner teachers and one instructional assistant by 2012. English Learners remained scheduled in self-contained classrooms with an academic focus on basic and survival English, writing, and vocabulary. He recalled the English Learner teachers talking about academic language, but explained that the staff did not understand the role of academic language for English Learners. “Some of it may have been the disbelief that those kids could do it, that they could learn the vocabulary of Algebra I or biology or world history,” Runyon explained. There were increased numbers of English Learners who were mainstreamed throughout the building. The need for professional

development in instructional strategies and accommodations for English Learners continued for years after the passage of Title III.

Resources for translation services and professional development for the staff at Slasor to better understand the English Learners were available post-Title III. Translation services for the English Learners at Slasor and professional development for mainstream teachers were addressed with the localization of immigrant leaders and the arrival of immigrants who were bilingual. Runyon attributed the growth and diversity in the English Learner population to the immigration of Karen refugees. A pastor from Burma had immigrated to the community. The pastor planted a church for the Karen refugees. He worked with the local refugee resettlement agency to sponsor the immigration of Karen refugees. “Just having someone local who understood our side of things (school) and their side of things (English Learners) was impactful for what we were trying to do,” Dr. Runyon stated. The pastor and local Burmese church partnered with Dr. Runyon to provide translation services, assist with registration of new English Learners, and implement professional development for the staff at Slasor.

After the passage of Title III, the population of English Learners had outgrown the make-shift classroom in the former storage room. Dr. Runyon created an available classroom in the mathematics hallway and relocated the classroom for English Learners. Dr. Runyon justified the relocated classroom as an improvement of the previous classroom adjacent to the in-school suspension classroom. The classroom was no longer isolated from the general population. The English Learner teacher was now included as part of an academic department. aligned as part of a department. “She (English Learner teacher) was inappropriately placed,” Runyon shared. “I mean, really, what did she (English Learner teacher) have in common with the math department,” he continued.

The significance of relocating the classroom to an academic hallway was the inclusion of the English Learner teacher as a member of a department for meeting and professional training purposes. With the requirement through Title III that English Learners meet the same academic standards in the core academics, the English Learner teacher was positioned to learn about those standards to equip her students for academic success in math. In turn, the English Learner teacher could use those meetings and professional conversations to address instructional strategies, accommodations, and assessment practices that were mandated through Title III. How the professional development and training by the English Learner teacher was received by the mainstream teachers remained problematic for the academic success of the English Learners.

Accountability to implement what the English Learner teacher presented through professional development remained problematic for improved English Learner outcomes. After Title III passage, Dr. Runyon continued to face a lack of teacher empathy, a lack of personal accountability, and a lack of desire for mainstream teachers to be accountable for the professional learning. Dr. Runyon explained that while the English Learner teacher had developed relationships with the math teachers, she remained largely unknown in the years after the passage of Title III. Accountability for professional development about English Learners and relations between the English Learner teacher and the staff at Slasor was further complicated by the untimely death of the English Learner teacher. Dr. Runyon relied on the educational assistant who was not trained in English Learner education nor core academic standards to provide the ongoing professional development for the staff.

Without adequate professional training for staff, Dr. Runyon explored other available resources to meet the mandates of instructional strategies, accommodations, and assessment practices under Title III. There were no classes specifically designed to meet the language and

academic needs of English Learners. His first option was to strategically place English Learners in classes with teachers who were open to working with a marginalized population. He designed classes specifically to address instruction and accommodations for English Learners.

Adopting the term "focused scheduling," Dr. Runyon was deliberate in designing self-contained academic courses for English Learners that would meet the instructional mandates under Title III. English Learners experienced increased opportunities to register for a variety of classes with the "focused scheduling." He designed an English as a Second Language - art class and an English as a Second Language - personal finance class. These classes were taught by qualified art and finance content teachers. The lack of professional development and training for English Learners for these teachers to learn how to accommodate instruction for English Learners remained an obstacle for student success in these classes. However, the English Learner teacher could offer language supports within the co-taught classroom.

To address the lack of professional development and training for teachers in these specifically designed classes for English Learners, Dr. Runyon recruited teachers who were empathetic to anticipated difficulties working with English Learners. He was able to recruit teachers of color, teachers of tolerance and acceptance, and teachers of compassion. "We had a different faculty by that time (ten years after the passage of Title III)," Dr. Runyon stated. "They had a real heart for those kids and were genuine in their desire to help them (English Learners) succeed," explained Runyon. Dr. Runyon believed with a more open, willing faculty and the design of core academic classes for English Learners that he would take a step closer to compliance with the instructional mandates under Title III.

Student Outcomes Pre-Title III

Student outcomes for English Learners were not addressed at Slasor High School before the passage of Title III. The population was small relative to the overall student population that the test scores of the English Learners did not impact the school's test scores for academic achievement or growth. English Learners were assigned to multiple blocks English as a Second Language classes with the English Learner teacher. The English as a Second Language curriculum was teacher-developed. The English Learner teacher taught English as a Second Language standards within the four modalities of second language acquisition, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Dr. Runyon said he was unaware and unfamiliar with those standards before Title III. "They learned whatever she (English Learner teacher) taught them," Runyon explained. There was no focus on academic standards or accommodations of which Dr. Runyon was aware before the passage of Title III.

Dr. Runyon explained that before the passage of Title III and even for several years afterward, he used different scheduling techniques to create schedules for English Leaners. The schedules determined the instruction the students received. "If I had a student who didn't speak English, then I would schedule that student in the English as a Second Language classroom all day or at least most of the day," Dr. Runyon stated. The goal for his English Learners was to learn as much English as quickly as they could. He explained that he would use a physical education class or an art class to give the student another class to attend outside of the multiple blocks of English as a Second Language. Otherwise, the English Learners who had limited English proficiency remained in the English as a Second Language classroom. This practice was common prior to the passage of Title III.

The State Department of Education permitted two English as a Second Language classes to meet two of the four English requirements to earn a high school diploma prior to Title III passage. If an English Learner took more than two English as a Second Language classes, the additional classes were applied as elective courses towards high school graduation requirements. Students in the first year of education in a public school were exempt from state testing. Dr. Runyon was unaware of these exemptions and could not recall whether he executed those exemptions. He knew for testing purposes prior to Title III, English Learners qualified for testing accommodations that included use of a bilingual dictionary and extended time.

Dr. Runyon explained that he measured student outcomes in more ways than test scores before Title III. He explained he considered non-academic outcomes for non-academic instruction. “We had kids that were learning to navigate between classes, how to find the restroom, and how to follow new sets of rules,” explained Dr. Runyon. He explained he had to search for those wins in student outcomes rather than focus solely on test scores.

Prior to Title III passage there was limited school-wide focus on effective assessments for English Learners at Slasor. The staff struggled to design effective assessments that removed cultural bias, presented appropriate and concrete instructions, and provided accommodations for English Learners. The staff failed to consider measuring student outcomes for English Learners before Title III. Dr. Runyon indicated there was minimal support from the district for how to assess English Learners or how to accommodate their needs in assessments. English Learners were not a significant part of the conversation of student outcomes prior to the passage of Title III according to Dr. Runyon.

There were a handful of English Learners at Slasor who defied that exclusion from that conversation by demonstrating English proficiency. Those English Learners attended core

academic classes in math, science, social studies, and English and were required to test in core academics without testing accommodations before the passage of Title III. Dr. Runyon explained he knew the English Learners who tested according to those parameters would underachieve compared to the non-EL peers. “That was just what we expected,” stated Runyon.

Student Outcomes Post Title III

The mandates for English Learners to meet the same academic standards as non-English Learners under Title III required testing of all English Learners. English Learners had to meet the same proficiency goals in English I, II, and III, Algebra I, Algebra II, Biology I, Chemistry I, and U.S. History. English Learner scores counted equally as those of non-English Learners for school-wide growth and achievement measures. Dr. Runyon noticed a decrease in those measures. “For whatever reason, we started noticing a slip. Okay. So, we're no longer a level five school. Suddenly we're four and that’s when we realized a change had to occur,” Dr. Runyon explained.

The mandate for English Learners to meet the same academic standards and required testing was the impetus for an increased effort to include English Learners as part of the conversation regarding academic achievement. The staff at Slasor began to discuss how to effectively measure the academic growth of English Learners. Title III redirected the conversation about student outcomes and testing to include accommodations for English Learners. According to Dr. Runyon, the staff simply did not have the appropriate training or skills necessary to effectively change instruction and thereby positively impact student outcomes. Dr. Runyon indicated there was minimal support from the district for how to assess English Learners or how to accommodate their needs in assessments after the passage of Title III.

Dr. Runyon considered adjustments in scheduling, use of differentiated instruction, and instructional accommodations to affect student outcomes after the passage of Title III. Dr. Runyon used those mandates to address his concerns about placement of English Learners in certain tested subjects. The practice of focused scheduling and design of core academic classes for English Learners was not just an attempt to address compliance under Title III for instruction. The practice was an attempt to reverse the decrease in school achievement measures.

"I called it cleaning out the corners," Dr. Runyon stated. He explained that the passage of Title III required Slasor High School to acknowledge the English Learners that were enrolled as having a right to be taught. "I'm not sure we were doing that… at least not well," said Runyon. According to Dr. Runyon, the English Learners were scheduled to English as a Second Language class for one block. A block was a 90-minute class. Title III required a minimum of 60 minutes of daily English instruction. The structure of a high school block complied with the Title III requirements for daily instruction. Dr. Runyon explained that after Title III, English Learners did not receive the accommodations for instruction and assessment in core academic and elective courses. He reiterated the lack of professional development for those teachers as the main cause for non-compliance with those accommodations mandated under Title III.

The lack of professional development and instructional supports from the district or the state contributed to poor student outcomes and failure to comply with Title III mandates. Dr. Runyon attributed the mainstream classroom teacher's lack of knowledge about English Learners and the commitment to teach to the middle of the academic scale stifled student growth. "I think that when they were mainstreamed into the elective classes, a lot of times, they were just washed out. In other words, they would tend to sit together, talk to one another in Spanish, and not engage in the learning," Dr. Runyon stated. English Learners in larger mass with the increase in

population after the passage of Title III found an all too familiar spot in the corner of the classroom in much the same as the smaller population did before 2000.

Dr. Runyon was able to address these concerns when he hired a new guidance counselor. “He was able to see scheduling through a different lens that me,” stated Dr. Runyon. Class sizes were reduced. Dr. Runyon recruited teachers who were willing to teach English Learners. The focused scheduling became more intentional and deliberate as Dr. Runyon and his guidance counselor created each English Learner’s schedule by hand. Smaller class sizes did not permit English Learners to sit ignored in the corner of the classroom. The smaller class size removed the potential for behavioral and discipline issues. According to Dr. Runyon, the smaller class size most effectively influenced the teacher’s ability to develop instruction around the needs and anticipated learning difficulties of English Learners. Simultaneously he by-passed the testing data because the cohort never exceeded the limit of 30 students in a disaggregated test group as stipulated in Title III. School wide test scores increased in growth and achievement through Dr. Runyon’s use of focused scheduling, smaller class sizes, and self-contained elective classes for English Learners at Slasor High School.

Data showed English Learners were projected to score low in academic achievement. Dr. Runyon understood those data. He explained those data projected English Learners would score low in academic achievement because they were being tested in a language for which they were deficient. Projections for academic performance was also based on previous tests in elementary and middle schools. As a result of low academic projections, Dr. Runyon focused on academic growth.

Academic growth scores measured the difference between an English Learner’s projected scores and actual score. Dr. Runyon knew the potential for high growth scores among English

Learners was significant based on low projections. He used the potential for significant growth scores to entice and recruit teachers to teach English Learners without fear of adverse effects on their accountability. His efforts yielded a positive outcome as more teachers were willing to collaborate and address the challenge. He was unsure to what extent the recruitment of teachers willing to teach English Learners impacted student outcomes. However, he believed that the continued focus on smaller class sizes, focused scheduling, hiring of additional staff, and willingness to collaborate would yield positive student outcomes for the English Learners at Slasor.

Conclusion

Title III influenced the identification and registration process for English Learners at Slasor with the inclusion of a language survey, a universal placement test to determine qualification for English as a Second Language services, and the increased staffing and availability of English Learner teachers. Communication in a language parents of English Learners could understand was improved after Title III passage through the partnership with an immigrant pastor from Burma and the hiring of an interpreter.

Dr. Runyon stated mandates under Title III for instruction and accommodations for influenced his implementation of focused scheduling, collaborative core academic courses for English Learners, and requirement to attain the same academic standards as non-English Learners. All English Learners were required to test with testing accommodations provided under Title III. The result was decreased scores for school-wide accountability measured through academic and growth measures. Dr. Runyon believed the lack of effective professional development and training for mainstream teachers adversely affected student outcomes. Dr. Runyon summarized the education of English Learners at Slasor High School from self-

containment before Title III to controlled at the passage of Title III to integration after the passage of Title III.

Case 2: Dr. Whitaker

Originally from a state in the midwestern U.S., Dr. Whitaker earned a degree in mathematics from a state university in the northeastern United States in 1972. She accepted a position as a school librarian for an elementary school in her hometown because there were no open math positions. She worked as an elementary librarian for three years before leaving to teach math at the local middle school. She taught middle school math for 6-8 grade for approximately 16 years. During the same time, she earned a master's degree in administration and supervision and a doctorate degree in education.

In 1992, Dr. Whitaker and her husband relocated to a state in the southeastern U.S., the site for this study. Dr. Whitaker taught at Osteen Elementary School in the Wadale School District from 1993 to 1999. Osteen Elementary School was a K5 school with approximately 575 students. After six years at Osteen Elementary, Dr. Whitaker was appointed as principal at Kellner Elementary School. Dr. Whitaker credited her advanced education and tenure as a teacher in multiple school districts for the appointment as principal at Kellner. The administrative position at Kellner was the first of two administrative appointments with the Wadale School District.

Kellner Elementary School served approximately 500 students in grades kindergarten through 5th grade in 1999. Dr. Whitaker described the student population as mostly white, non-Hispanic. The families were well-educated, white collar professionals. The community surrounding Kellner Elementary School was home to companies for biomedical research, information technology, and mechanical engineering. Many of these companies had international

offices. The companies often sent visiting professionals stateside to work for a period of one to two years. The visiting professionals would often travel with their families. The children were enrolled at Kellner.

The community was geographically situated between a 100-year-old private university with over 10,000 students and a state university with a student enrollment of approximately 15,000 prior to 2000. The private university housed a nationally ranked medical center and hospital offering multiple centers of excellence including neonatal and pediatric facility. Dr. Whitaker explained understanding the community, the level of education, and the employment opportunities was vital to understanding the composite of English Learner population at Kellner Elementary School.

Before the passage of Title III, the English Learner population was less than ten students at Kellner. “I know this will sound bizarre, but the population was pretty diverse,” Dr. Whitaker explained. According to Dr. Whitaker, the ten English Learners were from multiple countries. “Most of the English Learners at Kellner between 2000 and 2004 were children of visiting professors at one of the universities or children of an engineer for a company that was only here for a year,” she explained. The transient population returned to their native countries of Japan, Taiwan, South Korea, or Malaysia within one to two years. Dr. Whitaker noticed that the English Learner population was increasing just prior to her departure in 2004.

The Director of Wadale Schools appointed Dr. Whitaker as principal of the new Ilaire High School in 2004. “I had never even taught high school,” Whitaker stated. “I wasn’t sure what I was getting myself into, but I liked the idea of opening a new school,” Dr. Whitaker continued. Ilaire High School was located in the rural part of the county with approximately 1200 students in grades 9-12. Dr. Whitaker described challenges in staffing, equipping the

classrooms with furniture and technology, and establishing educational goals for a population that did not exist at the time. She cited these experiences as instrumental to her preparation for staffing, equipping teachers with instructional strategies, and establishing educational goals for a diverse and growing English Learner population upon her return to Kellner Elementary School after four years at Ilaire. Dr. Whitaker remained at Ilaire High School for four years before returning to Kellner. In June 2017, Dr. Whitaker retired after 45 years in public education as an elementary librarian, middle school math teacher, and school principal.

Exigency for English Learners Pre-Title III

Prior to the passage of Title III of *No Child Left Behind* in 2001, Dr. Whitaker reported that the staff at Kellner had no formal identification process for English Learners. There was one English Learner teacher who served multiple schools in the Wadale School District. The English Learner teacher's availability to assist with the identification and registration of English Learners was limited. Dr. Whitaker stated that the English Learner teacher employed a language diagnostic test to determine the level of English proficiency. The English Learner teacher used test data to determine qualification of services and placement in English as a Second Language classes. Dr. Whitaker explained there were very few immigrants who qualified for English as a Second Language services from 1999 to 2004 because most were proficient in English upon arrival at Kellner Elementary School.

Communication with parents of English Learners at Kellner was relatively easy even though the school did not employ bilingual staff prior to Title III passage. The parents of English Learners at Kellner were well-educated professionals with at least one parent proficient in English. "This made talking to them about their child's previous schooling much easier," stated Dr. Whitaker. The school guidance counselor could readily discuss educational background,

student interests, scheduling classes, and qualification for language services. Often, the parents had a copy of the school records with them at registration.

English Learners were registered and mainstreamed in classrooms according to their age and grade level. English Learners were taught English/ Language Arts, math, science, and social studies alongside their non-EL peers. Dr. Whitaker explained the English Learners were well-educated in their native language which she attributed to their academic success at Kellner. “It was clear to us that they (students) had studied science and math before coming to our school. That made the transition easier for these kids,” stated Dr. Whitaker.

Exigency for English Learners Post-Title III

Upon her return to Kellner Elementary School as principal in 2008, Dr. Whitaker noted an increased general student population. The general student population increased by 150 students in four years. She believed the increase correlated with economic growth of industries and the expansion of services and programs provided through the two nearby universities. Families moved into the community because of employment opportunities. By 2016, the student enrollment at Kellner was approximately 700 students. Most notable was the increase of English Learners who then represented 14% (108) of the total population at Kellner after the passage of Title III.

Dr. Whitaker identified two factors that contributed to the growth in the English Learner population. English Learners were less transient after the passage of Title III establishing permanent residence in the community. “The population was more constant. I mean, the population was no longer transient,” explained Dr. Whitaker. English Learners and their families immigrated from other countries as well as migrating from other geographical areas of the state. According to Dr. Whitaker, English Learner families wanted their children to attend Kellner

Elementary School because the staff at the school had a reputation of embracing cultural, custom, and linguistic differences. Dr. Whitaker noticed entire neighborhoods were being constructed and English Learner families were choosing to live in the Kellner Elementary School zone. “They (English Learner families) were pursuing jobs in the hotel and retail, custodial services, construction, and landscaping job markets,” explained Dr. Whitaker. By 2016, there were over 100 active English Learners at Kellner Elementary School.

While there was no correlation between the growth in the English Learner population and Title III passage, the growth impacted how Dr. Whitaker implemented Title III mandates. “We had never seen so many English Learners,” explained Whitaker. The significant growth in the English Learner population directly impacted the workload of staff responsible for identification and registration. After the passage of Title III, the staff at Kellner had more students enroll at the beginning of each school year, more registration paperwork, more students to schedule for English as a Second Language services, and more parents with whom to communicate regarding student needs.

While Title III of *No Child Left Behind* required communication with parents of English Learners in a language the parents could understand, the mandate was not an obstacle for the parents at Kellner Elementary School. Dr. Whitaker explained many of the EL parents were bilingual, proficient in English and the native language. The capacity of parents to communicate in English met the federal mandate to communicate with EL parents in a language they could understand. The EL parents were able to articulate educational interests and goals for their children. According to Dr. Whitaker, the parents of new English Learners were upper middle class, well-educated, overachieving professionals much like the EL parents at Kellner prior to Title III passage.

Beyond communication, Dr. Whitaker cited the need to improve parental engagement in school activities related to their child's education. Parental engagement was an extension of the Title III mandate for staff to understand the English learner. Dr. Whitaker explained the parents of English Learners were not afraid to ask questions about their child's education, assist with schoolwork at home, or request participation for their children in extra-curricular activities. However, Dr. Whitaker struggled to engage parents in any after school activity, parent-teacher organization, parent nights, open houses, or community outreach. The parents were content to assist in their child's education from off-site.

Availability of Resources Pre-Title III

Dr. Whitaker explained that staffing teachers for English Learners, designing or implementing a viable curriculum for English Learners, and professional development for mainstream teachers were among the most notable limited resources prior to that passage of Title III. In 1999, Kellner Elementary School employed one itinerant English Learner teacher. The English Learner teacher spent a half day three days per week at Kellner. The limited schedule of an itinerant teacher restricted instruction for English Learners. There was not a mandate or requirement for daily instruction or length of daily instruction in English as a Second Language prior to Title III passage. The limited availability of an English Learner teacher to provide daily instruction adversely impacted the effectiveness of English instruction, professional development and training, and integration of English Learners among non-English Learners. These factors delayed progress in acquisition of language and cultural skills for the English Learners before the passage of Title III.

English as a Second Language instruction for English Learners was the sole responsibility of the English Learner teacher. Dr. Whitaker felt personally underqualified to train

mainstream teachers in curriculum and instructional strategies for the mainstream teachers at Kellner Elementary School. The State Department of Education and the Wadale School District did not mandate length of instruction before Title III. Language instruction was delivered by the itinerant English Learner teacher through a push-in model. The push-in model of instruction required the English Learner teacher to attend the mainstream class with the English Learner. The English Learner teacher would provide language supports for the content being taught in the mainstream classroom. The push-in model of instruction and the inconsistency in the itinerant teacher's schedule resulted in variable times and days of instruction for the English Learners. Some English Learners received 30 minutes of daily instruction while others received an hour of instruction twice a week.

Prior to the passage of Title III, English Learners benefitted from school wide support among the staff and students at Kellner Elementary School. The level of tolerance and cooperation opened many doors of inclusion for English Learners. "We did not struggle with teacher resistance to working with English Learners," Dr. Whitaker stated. "Everyone welcomed and embraced the diversity of the English Learners; they just didn't have the tools necessary to instruct and accommodate the needs of English Learners," Whitaker continued. English Learners were viewed as assets rather than liabilities and subsequently never ostracized in the classroom for lack of knowledge or English proficiency.

Instruction within the core academic classrooms was the responsibility of the mainstream teacher prior to Title III. Dr. Whitaker provided professional development for the mainstream teachers to assist with effective strategies for instruction of English Learners. The professional development was developed by the English Learner teacher. The professional development focused on understanding the English Learner, second language acquisition theories, labeling

objects within the classroom in the student's native language, and connecting tasks and rules to pictorial descriptions. "He (English Learner teacher) did all of this on his own," explained Dr. Whitaker. "All I did was give him the time to present to the faculty," claimed Whitaker. The professional development failed to address instructional strategies, depth of context and content, and application across grade levels for English Learners.

Availability of Resources Post-Title III

With the passage of Title III, Dr. Whitaker had to comply with mandates for daily instruction for English Learners, a minimum of one hour of instruction for English Learners in grades 1-5 and 45 minutes of instruction for kindergarten. Dr. Whitaker explained they were non-complaint with the Title III mandate for daily instruction for nearly four years. In 2004 the school extended the employment status of the English Learner teacher from itinerant to full-time however, a second English Learner teacher was not hired for four more years. In 2008, the Wadale School District provided staffing for a second English Learner teacher. In 2009, one of the English Learner teachers from Kellner was promoted to a newly created Wadale School District EL supervisor position. Dr. Whitaker hired a full-time replacement for the departing teacher. The increase of English Learner teachers and daily English as a Second Language instruction complied with Title III. In doing so, the mandates left the staff and students in need of ongoing professional development, effective instruction, and accommodations for learning and testing.

As the population increased in the mid to late 2000s, Dr. Whitaker became more focused and intentional in scheduling English as a Second Language instruction. She had to design a schedule that avoided English Learners being pulled for instruction during English, protected reading blocks, math, and all related arts classes. The hardship on scheduling for English

Learners resulted from policy mandates post-Title III. "I would cluster English Learners within grade levels," Dr. Whitaker explained. She scheduled all 2nd grade English Learners in the same two grade level classes rather than assign them in all five 2nd grade classrooms. The intentional scheduling enabled the English Learner teachers to meet requirements to provide an hour of instruction daily and to narrow their efforts to a limited group of mainstream teachers for ongoing professional training.

As English Learner teachers had more English Learners to teach, the ability of the English Learner teachers to meet the professional development needs of the faculty strained. "I knew we had to get them some help," Dr. Whitaker stated. The help came with the addition of English Learner staff provided by the Wadale School District. Kellner had a total of four English Learner teachers and a district EL supervisor who facilitated professional conversations and opportunities for professional development and training. The English Learner teachers and district supervisor offered linguistic support, differentiated activities and tasks, and provided feedback to the mainstream teachers. "They began to combine efforts and it showed," stated Whitaker. Whitaker more effectively supported mainstream, teachers with the added employment of additional EL staff.

Through Title III requirements for parent communication and engagement, Dr. Whitaker sought to increase parental involvement and strengthen engagement to improve school-home relations with English Learners and their parents. Dr. Whitaker and the English Learner teachers created an international night to highlight and educate students about other languages and cultures. The parents of English Learners shared pictures and artifacts, presented songs and games, and demonstrated ethnic attire with the entire school. The international night was well-attended and replicated the following year. "It was so well received that we had expanded the

international night into an international week by 2012," Dr. Whitaker stated. Inclusivity had positive affirmation on the English Learner population, cultural acceptance, and student outcomes.

Student Outcomes Pre-Title III

Student outcomes for English Learners at Kellner were not specifically addressed prior to Title III passage. English Learners may or may not have taken tests in the classroom with their non-EL peer. There were no exemptions. As explained by Dr. Whitaker, "most of our English Learners were somewhat proficient so they were able to do quite well." Before the passage of Title III, test scores of the English Learners positively impacted the school's test scores for academic achievement or growth.

The English Learners at Kellner Elementary School were measured annually with a state English as a Second Language test. The test was not aligned with any state standards. The test was aligned with the English as a Second Language curriculum developed by the English Learner teacher. The English Learner teacher was familiar with the state English as a Second Language test. The English Learner teacher tailored instruction to prepare English Learners for the assessment. The test measured the four modalities of language learning, speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Dr. Whitaker said she was unaware and unfamiliar with those standards before Title III. According to Dr. Whitaker, student outcomes for English Learners were not measured with the same academic standards as non-EL peers before the passage of Title III.

Student Outcomes Post Title III

Dr. Whitaker cited four reasons to explain student outcomes for English Learners at Kellner Elementary School. First, the English Learners enrolled at Kellner with strong educational background and minimal interrupted schooling in their native countries. Many of

these English Learners had attained foundational skills in reading and writing English through studying English as a foreign language before immigrating to the U.S. Third, the parents of the English Learners were well-educated with at least one parent proficient in English. Dr. Whitaker acknowledged the capacity of parents to articulate educational interests and goals for their children. Dr. Whitaker explained the parents were not afraid to ask questions about their child's education, assist with schoolwork at home, or request participation for their children in extra-curricular activities. "It was impossible to place a value on their (EL parents) role in how well the kids (English Learners) did in school," Dr. Whitaker stated. Finally, the school set high academic expectations for all learners which fostered a culture of success. "We believed all kids could meet expectations with the right amount of help," Dr. Whitaker continued.

Title III influenced how Dr. Whitaker and the staff at Kellner Elementary School approached scheduling, instruction, and professional development to support English Learner education. The intentional scheduling that Dr. Whitaker employed enabled the English Learner teachers to meet requirements of Title III to provide an hour of instruction daily. English Learner teachers provided professional development to assist mainstream teachers to accommodate the educational needs of English Learners. However, the professional development was limited in scope and lacked the application to core academics and academic language for English Learners. Dr. Whitaker acknowledged there was a trade-off in focus. "We were experiencing positive growth on state English as a Second Language assessments. It just didn't always translate to ELA, social studies, or science.

Dr. Whitaker felt the school failed to adequately meet the requirement to assess English Learners in response to mandate for English Learners to meet the same academic standards as non-English Learners. All students were required to meet the same academic standards with

expectations for academic performance on or above grade level. Dr. Whitaker addressed student growth and academic achievement for English Learners in math. “There were even times when the English Learners outperformed the non-English Learners (on math exams),” Dr. Whitaker shared. “We had some kids from Japan and Korea who probably had a better foundation in math than our kids did,” she explained.

Growth measures and academic achievement among non-English Learners at Kellner Elementary School was on average above grade level. According to Dr. Whitaker, the underperformance of English Learners was not a detriment or a contribution to school-wide student outcomes. Dr. Whitaker concluded her remarks with pride that Kellner Elementary School was recognized multiple years as a state reward school, a reward that recognized the top 5% of schools’ academic accountability across the state.

Conclusion

The population of English Learners at Kellner Elementary School increased from less than ten students in 2000 to 108 English Learners in 2016. Most of the English Leaners were well-educated in their native country’s school system and bilingual education before enrolling at Kellner. She credited the diverse community around Kellner, two nearby universities with international partnerships for visiting professors, and the economic growth in industry and technology as influential on the composite of the English Learner population.

Title III influenced the identification and registration process for English Learners at Kellner Elementary School with the inclusion of a language survey, a universal placement test to determine qualification for English as a Second Language services, and the staffing allocations for English Learner teachers. Parental communication was not an obstacle as many parents of English Learners were well-educated professionals. Communication in a language understood by

parents according to prescription of Title III was already met because of the bilingual capacity and English proficiency of English Learner parents.

Dr. Whitaker employed teacher-developed professional development for mainstream teachers, created opportunities for shared cultures through International Week, and credited parental engagement as factors for the success of English Learners at Kellner Elementary School. Curriculum and instructional strategies were teacher-developed. All English Learners were required to test with testing accommodations provided under Title III. The result was English Learners positively improved school-wide test scores and growth scores as Kellner Elementary School was recognized as a Reward School (the top 5% of schools in the state) by the State Department of Education every year for Dr. Whitaker's last five years as principal at Kellner Elementary School.

Case 3: Mr. Westheimer

Mr. Westheimer held two interests from an early age that would define his leadership style and launch his life's work in education, athletics and military service. Mr. Westheimer excelled in athletics and academics in high school. He played multiple team sports, but football was where he demonstrated his own the field strength, athletic prowess, and leadership as team captain. He was one of the nicest guys on the field and one of the fiercest competitors. In high school, his preferred discipline was mathematics. "It (mathematics) just made sense to me," explained Mr. Westheimer. "I took every math class I could and as a result did pretty well on the ACT exam, Mr. Westheimer stated. Mr. Westheimer scored a 34 on the ACT math, a distinction that would later launch his career in education.

Following high school graduation, Mr. Westheimer enrolled in a local junior college in his hometown. His two years, according to Westheimer, were place holders until he could

transfer to a four-year university. His abilities on the football field garnered the attention of other colleges and universities. He received an offer to play football for the last two years of eligibility at Laughton-Skane College in a nearby southeastern state.

Laughton-Skane College was a small, private liberal arts college affiliated with a religious denomination. Upon arrival at Laughton-Skane College, Mr. Westheimer began conditioning and practice for football. He met with an admissions counselor who asked him the same question asked of all incoming students. What do you think you might like to study? "I wasn't sure," Westheimer replied. He explained that he enjoyed school, but preferred mathematics. "I shared with the counselor that I had done pretty well on the ACT math," stated Westheimer. "As soon as I said that and explained I had in interest in coaching, the counselor said, "Well, it sounds like you want to do something in education and there's a lot of opportunities for you to do things, stated Westheimer. Westheimer enrolled at Laughton-Skane as a physical education major. He played football for two years at Laughton-Skane College and earned a degree in health and physical education in 1981.

Mr. Westheimer completed four years in the United States Army and was offered a job teaching elementary physical education at Sonnino Elementary School. Sonnino was a small elementary school in the rural community of Innis Valley. Innis Valley was within the same county as Laughton-Skane College from where Westheimer had graduated. The school had approximately 110 students in kindergarten through 5th grade. "We were pretty small, one class in each grade level," Westheimer said. Westheimer credited the small teacher: student ratio and the support of a proud, rural community with the development of his communication and relational skills, two keys to his longevity as an educator and administrator.

Unfortunately, the time at Sonnino Elementary School while pivotal to his development as an educator was short lived. By mid-year the faculty at Sonnino Elementary School were notified by district staff that the school would be closed and staff relocated to other schools within the school district. Mr. Westheimer, another teacher, a school bus driver and son, and the principal packed a truck with school materials and moved to Whett School on December 31, 1985. “We didn’t need to take much, said Westheimer, because the school we moved to was new.” Two weeks later, Mr. Westheimer began teaching physical education at Whett School with approximately 600 students in grades kindergarten through 8th grade.

Westheimer shared that he never had intentions of becoming a principal. “One day Mrs. Duran (a career educator in the district) said she knew I would become principal one day and soon,” Westheimer explained. While he appreciated the compliment, he expected to remain in his teaching position at Whett. The statement would be timely and prophetic as the following year Principal McDougal was elected to a leadership position with the state.

According to Westheimer, Principal McDougal aspired to serve in the state’s education association. Principal McDougal was elected as vice-president of the state education association. In his absence, he asked Mr. Westheimer to serve as his substitute, working to ensure that teachers were supported and that discipline was addressed appropriately. In the second year of his service to the state education association, Principal McDougal named Mr. Westheimer as his assistant principal for that year. By the end of the three-year leadership post, Principal McDougal resigned and Mr. Westheimer was appointed in 1992 as the new principal at Whett School. Mr. Westheimer stated that he had no experience in administration. He believed he was selected because of his military experience prior to becoming an educator. “I did think about what my

friend had said several years before and just wondered what she knew then that I didn't know," Westheimer shared.

There was no diversity in the student body demographics. "I recall maybe five African American students in the whole school," Westheimer explained. "We had no Hispanics. We were just poor white kids mostly from good families in this rural Appalachia area."

Mr. Westheimer cited one instructional research project in the late 1990s that was significant to Whett School, but would foreshadow the how he approached the early education of English Learners. The Star Project was a longitudinal study that examined the impact of small group learning with an instructional assistant pushing into the class according to Westheimer. There were three groups, including a large classroom with no instructional assistant, large classroom with one instructional assistant, and a small pull out group of students with an instructional assistant. The studied measured the success of the three groups of students by how well they performed on state tests. "Well, I'm not real smart, but I think I could have told them which would do better even without the study," stated Westheimer. The strategy of a small group of students in a pull-out delivery model of instruction and an English Learner teacher pushing into a large mainstream classroom were two models of instruction Westheimer later employed with his English Learner population.

Enrollment at Whett School began to increase again in 1998 with the enrollment of the first English Learners. Mr. Westheimer cited the growth in the local housing market as the catalyst for the growth in the EL population. "We didn't have one or two houses constructed," explained Westheimer. We had entire neighborhoods added to our community." Westheimer stated there were two large trailer parks established and three new apartment complexes built over the next three years in the rural community surrounding Whett School.

"That (growth in housing market) changed two things for our school," said Westheimer. The growth of the housing market impacted the student population and diversity of Whett. Student enrollment increased from 650 to 750 or 775 students in the nine grades. Westheimer stated that he began to notice a few Hispanic families moving into the community. "They just started coming, you know, and we couldn't communicate or anything. We just tried our best," explained Westheimer. According to Westheimer, there were not many Hispanics, but even a slight presence of Hispanics was significant and noticeable at Whett.

Second, the growth in the student population and the arrival of English Learners at Whett prompted Westheimer to hire an assistant principal, Albie Stockwell. The addition of an assistant principal at Whett offered administrative relief for Westheimer with student discipline, parent communication, and oversight of facilities and maintenance. Stockwell worked with the state's special education department and was a former administrator. Westheimer credited this work with a marginalized population as vital to the early work with English Learners at Whett School.

Most of these Hispanic families lived isolated in neighboring counties. According to Westheimer, they lived where the jobs were. Two of the neighboring counties had more employment opportunities in manufacturing and agriculture than the community of Whett. As entire trailer parks and apartment complexes were built in Whett, Hispanic families began to move. "They were able to not be so isolated and could be around each other," according to Westheimer. He explained as he learned more about these people and their culture, he better understood the importance of community among Hispanics. Mr. Westheimer explained the families realized the community of Whett offered affordable housing that was still within driving distance of where they might be employed outside the county. The population of English

Learners grew steadily until an immigration boom in 2008 which was the impetus for a decade of changes student enrollment, diversity, English Learner population, and parent engagement.

Westheimer continued to serve as school principal at Whett School. He retired in June 2019 with 34 years of service in public education, 7 years as a teacher and 27 years in school administration. With the exception of his first semester teaching at Sonnino Elementary School, he completed his entire career at one school. Three months post retirement, he received a phone call inviting him to meet with the director of schools. By October, Mr. Westheimer had returned to part-time employment as a school principal at the local high school as principal of the Freshman Academy. After the expiration of his 100-day contract in May 2020, he plans to retire again.

Exigency for English Learners Pre-Title III

Prior to the passage of Title III of *No Child Left Behind* in 2001, Mr. Westheimer explained there was no formal protocol to identify English Learners who enrolled at Whett School. There was no formal identification instrument that Westheimer recalled for establishing which students would qualify for English as a Second Language services. The students were identified as either speaking English or not speaking English. The main office staff and counseling department at Whett School followed the same registration procedures for English Learners as general education students. Parents of English Learners were asked for proof of residency and proof of birth with a copy of a certificate or social security number. Westheimer explained that his staff was unaware of the legality of that request at the time, but would later learn to request for documentation was illegal and violated federal policy. “We just tried to treat them the same, make them feel welcomed, and get them in school,” stated Westheimer.

Communication with English Learners and parents was an obstacle to the registration process for Mr. Westheimer and his staff before Title III passage. According to Mr. Westheimer, most of the parents did not speak English. Moreover, most of the Hispanic parents could communicate verbally in Spanish, but were illiterate in reading or writing Spanish. In the absence of a Spanish-speaking adult, Mr. Westheimer would rely on the conversational English skills of the English Learner to communicate details about registration with EL parents at Whett. Federal policy mandated communication with parents in a language they understood and translated by a qualified interpreter. “We used gestures, pictures, anything to help talk to them (English Learner parents),” said Westheimer.

Westheimer explained that prior to Title III, the challenge in oversight of the registration process was not having a full time English Learner teacher on staff at the school. Whett School did not employ an English Learner teacher until 2003 or 2004 as Westheimer recalled. The first English Learner teacher to serve at Whett School was an itinerant teacher who served two additional schools besides the English Learners at Whett. The practice of using students for registration procedures was changed after the passage of Title III and the hire of a paraprofessional at Whett to translate between school and home for English Learners.

Mr. Westheimer explained that many of the parents of English Learners struggled with school engagement whether for parent-teacher conferences, involvement in the parent-teacher organization (PTO), report card night, open houses, or any other family event at the school. the lack of parental engagement transcended linguistic barriers and lack of translation services. There was a cultural barrier to parent engagement at Whett School that Mr. Westheimer described before Title III. Parents often did not engage in school activities as a sign of respect for the teachers and staff in the building. “We wanted them to come to the school. We needed them

to come to the school," explained Westheimer. The cultural barrier of parent engagement heightened the parents' unfamiliarity with the American school system. Parents often lacked the education and understanding on their rights governing their children's education. "They didn't know what questions to ask," said Westheimer.

Mr. Westheimer provided a composite example of Exigency for English Learners before Title III. He stated that a person who presented as a relative of the English Learners was a proficient in conversation English with some linguistic skill in reading and writing. Families would transfer into the district, establish residency, and then enroll the children at Whett School. The person presenting as a relative would arrive at the school to enroll three children that were "nephews." "They were not nephews, and I knew that," explained Mr. Westheimer. The relative would not have any school records of previous education for the children, no proof of birth, and no photo identification card. The students would be enrolled and mainstreamed into general education classes. Mr. Westheimer explained that he would try to impress the importance of obtaining a social security card for the children. He stated that lots of kids obtained social security numbers during the mid 2000s. The mission was how to overcome these cultural and linguistic barriers, fear, and safety measures that overtly made engagement between parents and Whett School a challenge.

Exigency for English Learners Post-Title III

Mr. Westheimer explained that the passage of Title III required all students, English Learners and non-English Learners enrolling at Whett School to answer the language survey questions on the registration form. "It was the first time that all our other kids had to do something that our English Learners did, kinda a reverse of fortune," explained Westheimer. A staff member at Whett School or the itinerant English Learner teacher reviewed the language

questions and assessed any student who answered a language other than English on the language survey of the registration application. Beyond the modified registration application as part of Title III compliance, Mr. Westheimer recalled the assessment that would have been administered by the itinerant English Learner teacher to determine English proficiency for the English Learners. He thought the itinerant and later full time English Learner teacher probably kept those records. He was unaware that the identification instrument used by an English Learner teacher to determine English proficiency was changed on three occasions by the State Department of Education. The changes were responses to federal policy under Title III of *No Child Left Behind.*

While Title III did require that communication with parents of English Learners be presented in a language they could understand, the registration application with the language survey fell short of complete compliance. Mr. Westheimer explained that the registration application with the questions about language was translated into Spanish by 2010, 9 years after the mandate. Communication with parents of English Learners for school-wide announcements or classroom announcements were made available to English Learner families in English, but not Spanish until 2012. Mr. Westheimer explained that the inconsistencies in parent communication in Spanish for English Learners families improved with the employment of a bilingual Spanish paraprofessional after the passage of Title III. “I knew there are some things that still didn’t go out in Spanish and English, but I think was better than the early days (before Title III),” stated Westheimer.

Mr. Westheimer stated that a district policy in 2004 required a photo identification card or a state-issued driver’s license for adults to pick up children from school. The mandate was a response to a large-scale safety initiative that was nationwide. The district required all potential drivers to be listed on a student’s emergency cards. Westheimer explained that he realized that

was problematic for several of his English Learner families. “I knew many of my parents did not have a driver’s license and I knew several were undocumented. They didn’t want to add their names to a school card,” stated Westheimer. He explained the challenge was how to enforce the mandate for improved school safety and be sensitive to the status of his families.

Furthermore, the district policy violated the prescriptions of Title III for parent communication and education for all. “I knew we had some families that were here illegally,” Westheimer added. There was a prevalent fear among families of immigration raids on government property. “There were raids in other towns near us, even one as recent as 2018,” explained Westheimer. “Knowing who belonged to whom, I tried to work around those mandates,” Westheimer stated. Title III and judicial cases protected against exposure for the undocumented English Learners and their families.

Mr. Westheimer and the staff at Whett School countered the barriers to parental communication with opportunities to build community and host events to engage parents after Title III passage. He stated that he looked for opportunities to include English Learner parents. Whett School held a school outreach program called Supper with Santa. The English Learner teachers at Whett proposed the idea to include a Christmas in Mexico program as part of the school outreach. English Learner parents cooked authentic Mexican food, dressed in native attire, and decorated a classroom decorations, music, and stories. Mr. Westheimer credited the success of the inclusion as creating opportunities for additional cultural exchange programs including Cinco de Mayo, weekly adult English classes, organic Salsa Garden, and the establishment of Familia ESL, a Hispanic Parent- Teacher organization at Whett School.

The challenge for Exigency for English Learners after the passage of Title III resided in the failed system to offer advanced notification of English Learners prior to enrolling at Whett

School. According to Mr. Westheimer, no one at the district or from the community could offer advanced warning as English Learners and families moved into the community. “We literally found out when they (English Learners) showed up at school to enroll,” Mr. Westheimer stated. He explained that the insufficient notification system or lack of community-school communication made identification of English Learners more challenging for the staff at Whett. “That didn’t really change with Title III,” he stated. The capacity to prepare for increased English Learner enrollment would have positively influenced Mr. Westheimer’s response time for the enrollment procedures, staffing, translation services, and appropriate training for his classroom teachers.

Availability of Resources Pre-Title III

Prior to the passage of Title III, Whett School did not employ a full-time qualified English Learner teacher to provide language services for the English Learners. The small population of English Learners were mainstreamed in general education classes. “The English Learners were just in class like everyone else,” stated Mr. Westheimer. Teachers used instructional assistants to work individually with the English Learners. Westheimer stated there no procedures for working with English Learners prior to Title III.

Classroom teachers sought instructional strategies and curriculum from Mr. Westheimer before the passage of Title III. Teachers shared materials and books with each other. For example, a fifth-grade teacher with two English Learners would find materials and books from a first-grade teacher to use for instruction with the English Learners. Often those materials were too advanced for the reading or writing proficiency of the English Learners, according to Mr. Westheimer. He turned to the Jochim School District for support. “I was told that teachers just needed to work with the kids, talk to the parents, give materials that parents and English Learners

could work on at home," Mr. Westheimer explained. The response was to send materials home so the parent could work with the student and for classroom teachers to just treat the English Learners the same as other students. Mr. Westheimer realized that the school district did not understand the student, student's needs, or the impact of the growing population at Whett School.

"I knew the teachers wanted to make a difference," Mr. Westheimer explained. The lack of available resources for a curriculum or instructional activities for English Learners before Title III was compounded by the student's inadequate reading and writing skills. "Many of them (English Learners) didn't write English well or read English well and so that was a difficulty for the classroom teacher," Mr. Westheimer explained. The directive from the district was to send materials home so parents could help their children with schoolwork. Mr. Westheimer stated, "you know there weren't any kids (English Learners) going home to read a 10 page See Dick Run book with mom or dad." "They often were unable to listen to their child read and say the word is *at* or *come*," Mr. Westheimer continued. Parents' inability to speak English and their inability to assist their children with homework hindered learning for the English Learners. A lack of English proficiency and a lack of understanding the task adversely impacted the interaction and instruction for English Learners.

According to Mr. Westheimer the level of frustration to appropriately educate English Learners before Title III was apparent to students, teachers, and parents. Teachers suggested retention of English Learners to provide additional time to learn and achieve. "They (teachers) would ask me if they could keep them for another year because I think they're getting it," Mr. Westheimer stated. The request to retain English Learners was just as prevalent pre- and post-Title III as after the passage of Title III. The rationale for retention was based more on the

increased population of English Learners. “Teachers were overwhelmed when they started having five (English Learners enrolled) in the class. I think it became too much for them,” Westheimer explained.

Before Title III, no one beyond the principal or itinerant English Learner teacher offered professional development for mainstream teachers. Most of that training presented concepts and ideas related to understanding the mind and educational background of the English Learners. The training explored more of the “who” and “where” of English Learners than the “what” and “why” of instruction and accountability. From there, the focus slowly shifted to modification of instruction and assessment. This shift aligned with the tenants of Title III for instruction, assessment, and accountability. The English Learners at Whett School lacked the background knowledge to activate learning. “It was difficult to know how much they (English Learners) knew in science or social studies because of the inability to express in English,” Mr. Westheimer explained. The English Learner teacher offered training on how to provide context and background knowledge to support the learning of English Learners. “They could quickly give a background to a story or to a historical event that they were trying to condense so that, that the student would be able to hear something that might click with them on that,” explained Mr. Westheimer. There was no system of accountability for classroom teachers implementing these strategies for English Learners.

Availability of Resources Post-Title III

Title III impacted staffing to meet the educational needs of English Learners at Whett School. Mr. Westheimer made the itinerant English Learner teacher a full-time position and hired a paraprofessional to translate for non-English speaking parents. The English Learner teacher was responsible for identification, placement, and instruction for English Learners. The

itinerant English Learner teacher helped the school identify the English Learners and place them in the most appropriate grade or class. “She (English Learner teacher) would say these (English Learners) need minimal help and these (English Learners) are in need of moderate (English supports) and these kids are non-English speaking and you know, we would try to do what we could,” Mr. Westheimer stated. He indicated that most teachers wanted to help the English Leaners. The teachers lacked the knowledge or the resources to meet those needs. “They would ask me what they should do, and I didn’t know,” Mr. Westheimer stated. The paraprofessional was available to help English Learners and their parents with the registration process as well as communication between school and EL parents.

Scheduling and working with English Learners remained inconsistent for 10 years after the passage of Title III. According to Mr. Westheimer, the itinerant English Learner teacher used a pull-out delivery model of instruction. “She (English Learner teacher) would just pull them (English Learners) when she was at Whett,” Mr. Westheimer explained. The goal was to establish a routine and provide consistency in service hours. Inconsistency in meeting the requirement for service hours after Title III was caused by the numerous tasks of the English Learner teacher. Often, English Learner teachers had to respond to student issues beyond instruction for English Learners. Schedules were interrupted for discipline issues, translation services, student registration, class schedule, identification, and placement testing. When these interruptions occurred, the English Learner teacher left the English Learners in the mainstream classrooms and did not pull the students for English as a Second Language classes.

Scheduling was an obstacle for Mr. Westheimer as he tried to meet the instructional needs and requirements under Title III. “Providing services didn't amount to a certain amount of time right on, then as it (EL population) grew, that's where we ended up with three teachers to

support all those kids," Westheimer explained. With Title III the state mandated an hour of instructional time for English Learners. "We had certain times that had to be protected from any interruption," explained Westheimer. There were protected reading blocks, schedule of library time, recess, related art classes, interventions, and core academics. "There were many days we did the best we could, but I'm sure it wasn't enough," Westheimer admitted. "My English Learner teachers knew these issues created problems for us," Westheimer concluded.

As the English Learner population increased after Title III passage, Whett School did not have adequate classroom space available. "We didn't have enough classrooms," said Westheimer. Mr. Westheimer explained that before he retired, the school had several portable classrooms. English Learner teachers used two of those portable classrooms. Teachers would walk to the grade specific hallways to retrieve the English Learners from those classes and walk outside to the portable classrooms. "I know this impacted the time that the English Learner teachers could teach the kids," Mr. Westheimer explained. The state would mandate an hour of instruction for English Learners. One of the teachers would start teaching while the English Learners walked to the portable classroom. Mr. Westheimer stated that the school did the best they could, but was not compliant with the hour of English as a Second Language instruction for English Learners.

The instructional time and the master schedule were complicated with structure of a K8 school where the middle school and elementary school occupied the same gym, library, and cafeteria. The infrastructure issues related to schedules, use of facilities, and lack of classrooms made compliance with Title III a challenge for Mr. Westheimer and the staff at Whett. "We simply didn't have enough space for everyone," Westheimer explained. The district addressed the strain on school resources and lack of educational space at Whett by building a new two-floor

structure. The middle grades moved to the new building. The EL classrooms moved from the outside portables to the main building. Mr. Westheimer created appropriate classroom space for all three English Learner teachers and the English Learners. The long-term impacts of this structural addition on English Learners was decreased transition time between classes and increased instructional time, "I felt like they became more a part of Whett," Mr. Westheimer explained. He was unsure if these changes helped comply with Title III or the Jochim district or State Department of Education.

Resources for curriculum, instruction, and professional training remained scarce in the immediate years following the passage of Title III. The challenge was what to teach the English Learners. "I knew they (English Learner teachers) had their own stuff to teach and so we tried to make sure they had time to do that," Mr. Westheimer stated. Questions about responsibility for teaching core standards during that pull-out time were asked without answers. Questions about showing growth and achievement for a math class that the English Learners missed during the English as a Second Language pull-out instruction were unanswered. Meeting both sets of standards and achievement was impossible with the limitations of the existing schedule. English Learner teachers taught English Learners at the same time the English Learners were scheduled for English/ Language Arts. The conundrum was how to teach two sets of standards simultaneously. To teach one set of standards meant the English Learner teacher did not teach the other set. However, the English Learner was responsible for learning both English as a Second Language and English/ Reading Arts standards according to the mandates of Title III. "I remember it was frustrating to my English Learner teachers and we talked we just couldn't do it (teach both standards)," Mr. Westheimer stated. "That meant we didn't meet that mandate, I guess," Westheimer concluded.

According to Mr. Westheimer, the population of English Learners at Whett School increased from 50 active students in 2010 to over 80 actives and 20 transition students by 2012. The State Department of Education in an effort to address the rapid and significant growth of the English Learner population and comply with Title III for instruction and assessment reduced the English Learner and English Learner teacher ratio from 45:1 to 35:1. Mr. Westheimer was able to hire a second English Learner teacher in 2012 and a third in 2014. By 2016, Whett School had close to 100 active English Learners who were seen daily in English as a Second Language class and another 50 English Learners who were seen through push-in delivery models or on consultation.

English Learners were supposed to have a viable curriculum and instruction in English as a Second Language classes as a mandate in Title III. The struggle to implement these mandates under Title III extended beyond ten years after the passage of the policy. Mr. Westheimer explained additional staffing reduced the class size or pull out size for English Learners thereby increasing the personalized contact with the English Learner teacher.

Beyond English as a Second Language instruction, English Learners were mainstreamed for the remainder of the day. The English Learner teacher provided all professional training for mainstream teachers working with English Learners. The English Learner teachers expressed uncertainty to Mr. Westheimer which academic standards should be taught. Some of the English Learners were pulled by the English Learner teacher during the reading/ language arts period. The English Learner teacher needed to teach English as a Second Language standards, the standards for which the English Learners were instructed during the pull-out delivery model. The reading/ language arts teachers were accountable for the academic standards for reading/ language arts. Mr. Westheimer highlighted the discrepancy in the need to teach two sets of

academic standards to the same students at the same time. As a result, English Learners were tested in a subject, Reading/ Language Arts, for which they had not been taught.

Title III provided accommodations in instruction and assessment. Mr. Westheimer had previously described the instructional practice at Whett as pull-out delivery model of instruction with the English Learner teacher. “Providing services didn't amount to a certain amount of time,” Mr. Westheimer stated. “I remember it changed first to 30 minutes they had to have English class and then later an hour,” he continued. Mr. Westheimer did not know if the mandate for increased instructional time of English Learners was a direct result of Title III.

To address professional development for mainstream teachers, the English Learner teachers met with classroom teachers to discuss how to meet the educational needs of English Learners. “They (meetings) weren’t really PLCs (professional learning communities),” Mr. Westheimer said. The English Learner teachers collaborated with their grade level colleagues to help them better understand the students. Before the passage of Title III and for several years after the passage of Title III, there was no formal training or professional development for mainstream classroom teachers.

Mr. Westheimer explained that the Jochim School District did not provide teacher training or professional development to improve instructional strategies and capacity for the faculty and staff to support English Learners at Whett School. “The district office didn't really have an eye and an ear out for what was going on,” Mr. Westheimer stated. The focus of the district office was improvement of test scores as the population of English Learners began to increase. “What the English Learner teachers were able to do for our classroom teachers was the only training they had,” Mr. Westheimer explained.

Student Outcomes Pre-Title III

The population of English Learners at Whett School prior to Title III was so small relative to the overall student population that Mr. Westheimer did not remember any special accommodations that were extended to English Learners. English Learners were divided into two categories for testing. “If they (English Learners) knew enough English, they took the test. If they (English Learners) didn’t, then they didn’t,” explained Mr. Westheimer. Student outcomes for English Learners at Whett School were not specifically addressed prior to Title III passage. English Learners may or may not have taken tests in the classroom with their non-English Learner peers. There were no exemptions.

The English Learners at Whett School were measured annually with a state English as a Second Language test. The test was not aligned with any state standards. The test was aligned with the English as a Second Language curriculum developed by the English Learner teacher. The English Learner teacher was familiar with the State English as a Second Language test. The English Learner teacher tailored instruction to prepare English Learners for the assessment. The test measured the four modalities of language learning, speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Mr. Westheimer explained he was unfamiliar with how those four modalities were assessed, but that he trusted his staff to teach the English Learners.

“We had several kids (English Learners) who just did the best they could on whatever we asked them to do,” Westheimer stated. He explained that he felt bad for the English Learners who had to take tests in English when the fact they did not speak English was the reason for the assessment. “I preferred to measure student success in smaller wins,” explained Westheimer. According to Mr. Westheimer, he measured success of English Learners if they could successfully communicate in the gym or cafeteria with their peers, successfully learn and obey

school rules, and successfully become a part of the school. None of these factors contributed to how the Jochim School District measured student success prior to Title III.

Student Outcomes Post-Title III

Title III influenced student outcomes by dismissing test exemptions for English Learners based on date of entry or longevity in English as a Second Language services. Title III focused on academic achievement for all learners and expected English Learners to meet the same academic standards as non-English Learners. The top-down approach from the federal government through the mandates of *No Child Left Behind* left Mr. Westheimer feeling unprepared and unsupported in his efforts to support English Learners at Whett School. Jochim School District directed Mr. Westheimer to focus on achievement. "Gotta get those scores up," Mr. Westheimer stated. He explained that Whett School was too unprepared and too disadvantaged to meet those mandates. Title III mandated English Learners meet the same academic goals as non-English Learners. "I think it was like five years after it (NCLB) was there that all kids were supposed to be at the same level," Mr. Westheimer continued. "I remember my first thought was this is such an unattainable goal," stated Westheimer.

Title III required all English Learners be tested and removed test exemptions of English Learners that were common practice prior to Title III. Mr. Westheimer and the staff at Whett School were confronted with the challenge of testing and test accommodations for English Learners. He indicated that he would follow instructions for these accommodations from the English Learner teacher or the English Learner district supervisor. The large population of English Learners limited space available to test that number of students. Mr. Westheimer described the less than appropriate environments for testing the English Learners at Whett.

> We were testing in closets, offices. I've tested in my office. I thought that was one of the best things that they did in making accommodations. So that we were testing kids and giving them the opportunity to be able to look at and really give a true sense of where they are, educationally. Because otherwise, it was just a reading test that they failed reading, okay they're gonna fail science, social studies, and math as well. And it's not because they don't know science, math and social studies. It's because they can't read.

The shift to an electronic platform for testing after Title III was a challenge for Mr. Westheimer. Title III required all students to test without exemption. The State Department of Education's use of an online test required English Learners who lack technological experience and lack of typing skills to take a test for which the students were ill-equipped according to Westheimer. The shift required English Learners who were not fluent in English to be assessed. He explained that he lacked the technology infrastructure to accommodate online assessments. Furthermore, he explained the trials for English Learners to test on a computer in a language for which they are not proficient. "The number of kids we had to test just made it tough to follow those directives from the school district and the state and I guess what was really from *No Child Left Behind*," explained Westheimer. He acknowledged that if he failed to meet those mandates that the Jochim School District or state would reprimand him and place the school on notice for improvement.

Mr. Westheimer believed his English Learners lacked the educational background to meet the achievement goals within the same time frame. He cited deficiencies in pre-K education, vocabulary, and socialization. "I mean, there was no way that we're going to make every special ed kid and every child that we had that was below-level to start with," Westheimer

explained. “We were a high economically disadvantaged school (Whett) and so a lot of our kids didn't have opportunities for any type (of pre-school education) 'cause there weren’t mother out programs or pre-K programs or anything like that,” he explained. Mother’s Day out programs were enrichment programs for young children where the children learned social skills, improved fine motor skills, and practiced basic reading and writing in a pre-school learning environment. The incentive for mothers beyond the socialization and education of the child was a block of time where mothers could spend the day addressing personal needs.

Mr. Westheimer suggested student outcomes for English Learners was impacted by the lack of access to pre-school programs and books for reading placed his students at Whett School at a disadvantage before the students enrolled. The realization that every student would attain the same academic achievement was preposterous according to Mr. Westheimer. “I didn’t have the support to make that happen,” he stated. “We were lucky some days to get students to sit in a seat and do their work,” he explained in response to the number of English Learners at Whett who had never attended school or who had interrupted formal schooling in their native countries. Mr. Westheimer disagreed with the prescriptions of Title III that measured student outcomes only in terms of academic achievement equal to the non-EL peers.

“I mean we need to be able to show that we're doing what we're supposed to be doing and how are we supposed to be doing it in trying to get to a level of success for all students,” Westheimer explained. Success was measured in achievement and growth. “You know, they (state) want a third grade on the reading level at this percentage and here is your goal,” explained Westheimer. Since he knew academic achievement was an unattainable goal, he focused on academic growth. He suggested growth would differ for each student according to student background, early education, motivation, poverty, access to materials, or English proficiency.

“There were some English Learners and others who came to school and had never had a book at home or anything,” explained Mr. Westheimer.

If you’re doing what you can in the years-worth and you feel like you've taken through every skill that you need to give to them (students) in that year, then that's important. That’s growth,” Mr. Westheimer stated. He responded, “We've got to do it. By golly, if we don't, then this school is going to be under a plan and we're going to do certain things,” he continued. Mr. Westheimer agreed to be placed on a growth professional plan to oversee academic growth and professionalism. “I finally reached a point where I said fine, I want to be on a plan because that would give me, my teachers, and my students support we needed to make this thing (NCLB) happen,” stated Westheimer. According to Mr. Westheimer, Whett School would have received approximately $200,000 that could have been spent on instructional or assessment needs for students, technology, or resources for online assessments. “I didn't get a thing for being just okay,” Westheimer explained.

Conclusion

The English Learner population at Whett School increased from 20 in 2000 to 99 active English Learners in 2016. The English Learners were mostly Hispanic, speaking Spanish and regional dialects from Mexico. Many of the English Learners at Whett School were products of an interrupted formal education in their native country of Mexico which left them at a significant educational disadvantage upon enrollment as students at Whett. Parents of English Learners struggled to participate in their child’s education from communication to registration to engagement due to limited in English proficiency. The challenge to communicate in a language parents of English Learners could understand hindered their involvement prior to the passage of

Title III. Without translation services to assist with communication, the staff at Whett School relied on students for translation services.

Title III influenced staffing for English Learners, increasing from one itinerant English Learner teacher in 2000 to three English Learner teachers and one paraprofessional by 2016. Title III influenced the identification and registration process for English Learners at Whett with the inclusion of a language survey, a universal placement test to determine qualification for English as a Second Language services, and the availability of English Learner teachers and paraprofessional to assist. Communication in a language parents of English Learners continued to be a violation of Title III mandates. Some school staff continued to provide English-only copies of classroom requests or school announcements. Mr. Whitaker explained inadequate resources available for classroom space, scheduling English Learners in a building for elementary and middle school, and appropriate curriculum for English Learners remained limited or inconsistent more than ten years after the passage of Title III. Once Mr. Westheimer was able to hire additional English Learner teachers and the EL population stabilized, he was able to comply with the prescriptions for instruction and accommodations under Title III. Mr. Westheimer disagreed with measurements for student success under Title III. He firmly believed student accountability under Title III failed to measure non-academic success.

Case 4: Mr. Seborg

Mr. Seborg began his 37-year career in education as a high school social studies teacher at Kiele Catholic School in the same community of the Corcoran Public School District. He served eight years teaching social studies at Kiele. Kiele Catholic School had a mostly white, non-Hispanic population though the school was located in a predominantly African American residential area of the city. Mr. Seborg was targeted early in his career as a leader within the

school. He was hired to teach in a Catholic school though that was not his religious affiliation. According to Mr. Seborg the most unusual experience during his eight-year tenure at Kiele was his service as the unofficial assistant principal to the headmaster. He explained he did not practice Catholicism. “It was really unusual for them (administration) to select a non-Catholic to serve in leadership, at least that was my experience in the mid-80s,” Mr. Seborg explained. He believed he possessed strong communicative and mediation skills that served him well to assist the school with student services, discipline, and athletic coaching and direction.

By 1989, Mr. Seborg accepted a teaching position at Fayette High School in the Corcoran School District. He taught U.S. history, world history, and geography at Fayette and coached boys’ basketball as assistant coach as well. Three years into his tenure at Fayette, Mr. Seborg was appointed as assistant principal at Fayette. He had previously earned his master’s degree in administration and supervision. According to Mr. Seborg the school principal at Fayette and the director of schools for Corcoran Schools had tapped him all along to serve in administration. The change would be contingent on a vacancy. Mr. Seborg hung up his coaching whistle in 1992 as he transitioned into administration. “That may have been the hardest,” Mr. Seborg stated. “Basketball had been a part of my entire life as a player and coach, but I knew the time was right.”

An unexpended change in administration at the central office for Corcoran School District created a domino effect in transferring several lead principals to different schools. In 1994 the director of schools appointed Mr. Seborg as principal at Edington Middle School. Edington Middle School, located within the city limits, served nearly 400 students in 6th through 8th grades. Edington Middle School had a diverse population with approximately 70% white, non-Hispanic, 20% black/ African American, and 10% other (Hispanic, Asian, and Native

American). Mr. Seborg inherited a staff of 30 certified faculty and staff and one assistant principal at Edington.

There were no English Learners enrolled at Edington Middle School before the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind*. Mr. Seborg clarified there were international students at Edington because of the adjacent private liberal arts college, however, those students did not require language services through English as a Second Language. “We had a few kids from another country who maybe had a parent that worked at Marbour (College). I know Marbour would occasionally have a visiting professor who enrolled a child at Edington,” explained Mr. Seborg. That changed within about three years after the passage of Title III as immigrants and refugees moved into the community and enrolled at Edington Middle School.

Mr. Seborg served for 20 years at Edington Middle School. While there were no English Learners when he took the helm as principal in 1994, there were close to 50 active English Learners and 15-20 additional transitional students with a staff of two English Learner teachers by the time Seborg left Edington. He noted that the transitional English Learners had demonstrated proficiency on the state English as a Second Language assessment and no longer required daily services. The changes in the English Learner and English Learner teacher ratio was reduced from 50:1 to 35:1 allowing Mr. Seborg to hire an additional English Learner teacher in 2011.

After 20 years as principal at Edington Middle School, the director of schools for Corcoran School District made several administrative changes leaving a vacancy at Cranston High School. Cranston was a large suburban high school with over 1200 students and a growing English Learner population. “The director felt I would be able to help the staff there (Cranston

High School) because they were dealing with some of the same issues I had at Edington," Mr. Seborg stated. Mr. Seborg remained at Cranston for four years until he retired in 2018.

Exigency for English Learners Pre-Title III

Without English Learners at Edington Middle School before the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind,* there was no benchmark for identification, registration, scheduling, or instruction of English Learners. "We had enough of a diversity that our teachers and students were at least used to everybody not looking or acting the same," Seborg stated. Edington had a diverse population school-wide according to Mr. Seborg. The students who were from other countries were proficient in English. "Those students were never tested for English as a Second Language services since they spoke English well," explained Seborg.

Exigency for English Learners Post-Title III

In response to Title III and a growth in the English Learner population in the Corcoran School District, the Corcoran School District established an intensive English cooperative at Marbour College. Corcoran School District transported English Learners from different schools in the district to Marbour College for English as a Second Language instruction. English Learners usually spent half the day at Marbour where they learned English and math. "I knew they had to test the kids to see what they knew," Seborg stated. By the end of 2004 Edington Middle School enrolled approximately a dozen English Learners. These students were enrolled at Edington, but did not stay at school all day. The English Learners received instruction in survival vocabulary, basic English grammar, and American culture lessons. The intensive English cooperative also provided instruction for English Learners in math. The intensive English cooperative offered identification, placement testing, and registration services for all potential

English Learners. This program eliminated most barriers to the Exigency for English Learners for the staff at Edington Middle School.

While the intensive English as a Second Language cooperative at Marbour College addressed identification and registration barriers, English Learners struggled to assimilate into the school culture and environment at Edington. English Learners spent only half the instructional day at Edington. That time was spent in lunch, related arts, and core academics for social studies and science. “We knew it (intensive program) was a good thing for the kids learning English,” Seborg stated. “They learned English in a safe learning environment.”

Parent engagement and communication was problematic for two reasons. First, parents received school communication from both Edington and the intensive English cooperative at Marbour College. While school announcements were communicated by Mr. Seborg and his staff, the parents were interested in the intensive English cooperative because of the immediate engagement and improvement in English proficiency. “I’m sure it was a bit confusing for them. I would think it was like their child was attending two different schools,” Mr. Seborg explained. Second, most of the parents were not proficient in English. After the passage of Title III, the staff at Edington made greater efforts to provide school information in Spanish. Spanish was the predominant native language of the English Learners and their families at Edington.

Implementing the mandates for instruction of English Learners was addressed through the intensive English cooperative that Corcoran School District established with Marbour College. The partnership created an intake center where all English Learners were identified, tested for language services, and registered for classes. The intake center removed all communication barriers through that process for Mr. Seborg and the staff at Edington Middle School. Additionally, the cooperative provided an intensive English language program. English

Learners received instruction in English vocabulary and grammar, reading, writing, and math. According to Mr. Seborg, the intensive English cooperative at Marbour alleviated the stress and responsibility for implementation.

While the federal mandates under Title III of *No Child Left Behind* were without prescription, Mr. Seborg described the logistically and instructional support from the Corcoran School District. The district recognized the challenges for parent communication, identification and registration of English Learners, and instruction. Rather than pass those challenges and obstacles to the school principal and staff, the district anticipated those challenges and proactively established implementation strategies to address each concern.

Availability of Resources Pre-Title III

There were students from other countries at Edington Middle School before the passage of Title III. However, these students were well-educated in their native countries, had minimal interruption in formal education, and were proficient in English. Therefore, none of these students qualified for English as a Second Language services. Without English Learners at Edington before the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind,* resources to address staffing, instruction, accommodations, assessments, or professional development were not required or needed. The creation of the intensive English cooperative at Marbour College was responsive to the existing English Learner population in the Corcoran School District although there were no English Learners at Edington School at that time.

Availability of Resources Post-Title III

The intensive English cooperative at Marbour College created a school within a school for the English Learners at Edington Middle School. Mr. Seborg explained the program provided instruction in reading comprehension, English grammar, writing for educational purposes,

culture, and math. The English Learner teachers and the cooperative staff at Marbour College were well-qualified to meet the needs. Mr. Seborg was removed from that instruction and process. “The only thing I really did was make sure we had bus transportation scheduled to and from and make sure we had lunch for the kids after that got back here (Edington),” Mr. Seborg explained. “I had to make sure that our counselors had what they needed in order to make schedules for the kids (English Learners),” stated Seborg. According to Mr. Seborg, the counselors worked with the English Learner teachers at Marbour to ensure that the schedules aligned with the program.

Mr. Seborg explained in the first few years after the passage of Title III the English Learner population was small and homogenic. Edington had enrolled approximately 20 English Learners by 2010. Most were from Mexico and all spoke Spanish as the native language. “We could definitely see a difference in the student population, but it was still a relatively small percentage of our student body,” Mr. Seborg stated.

Mr. Seborg explained that the English Learners often felt ignored at Edington. The English Learners attended two classes, related arts, and lunch at Edington. The remainder of the school day the English Learners attended English and math classes at the intensive English cooperative at Marbour College. He felt that the English Learners struggled to assimilate because they were only at Edington for part of the day. “They enjoyed being at Marbour where they could feel comfortable speaking in Spanish. It was a good place for learning and making mistakes,” Seborg explained. He believed the camaraderie was even more crucial to their acculturation and success at Edington as the population of English Learners increased.

Mainstream teachers at Edington were ill-equipped to accommodate instruction in science and social studies. Mr. Seborg stated, “They were kinda on their own since our experts

(English Learner teachers) were out of our building all day." The teachers wanted to know how to meet the needs of English Learners. There was a desire to include them in the activities of the class. Unfortunately, the structure of the cooperative at Marbour did not provide time within the school day for teachers to interact with the English Learner teachers. "I credit the diversity of our school with helping teachers to include every student in the learning," Mr. Seborg stated. "The diversity was just a part of who we were." Mr. Seborg and the faculty and staff at Edington needed help in learning how to accommodate, differentiate, and modify instruction for English Learners to be successful in school as required under Title III prescriptions for instruction and assessment of English Learners.

"We didn't have the manpower or the support to give our teachers what they needed," Mr. Seborg stated. There was no formal training or professional development for a mainstream teacher who taught English Learners in science or social studies. Mr. Seborg explained that neither the district nor the state offered the needed professional training. "I knew I couldn't train them, but I needed to find someone who could," Mr. Seborg explained. While he knew social studies content, he did not feel qualified to address the diverse educational needs of the English Learners. According to Mr. Seborg, the need for professional training for mainstream teachers increased as the English Learner population increased.

In the absence of district or state professional training, the English Learner teacher was the only source of information and professional expertise. Mr. Seborg explained the logistics of offering that training was a challenge since the English Learner teachers taught off campus. The English Learner teachers were engaged in teaching the English Learners at Marbour and were unavailable to have those professional conversations with teachers during the day or the ability to

observe classrooms. The population of English Learners at Slasor was so small relative to the school population, English Learners were relegated to the corners of the classroom.

As the population of English Learners had increased by 2011, Mr. Seborg began to attend professional conferences for English Learner teachers. He heard of an instructional approach to teaching content to English Learners called Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP). The SIOP approach presented eight interrelated components of lesson planning, instruction, and assessment. SIOP addressed strategies and application of content input that was made comprehensible. In doing so, teachers addressed academic and linguistic needs simultaneously.

Mr. Seborg collaborated with the district to determine how to most effectively implement SIOP at Edington. He contacted the national SIOP organization and sponsored a two-day professional development conference at Edington. The Corcoran School District opened the professional development opportunity to other schools within the district. Mr. Seborg had 10 seats to assign. He selected one teacher from each grade level (6^{th}, 7^{th}, and 8^{th}), three additional teachers at large to attend, and both of his English Learner teachers to attend. "My goal was to get those teachers trained and then let them share with their colleagues," Mr. Seborg stated. "I added one of my counselors and myself to the two-day event so we could have an idea of what our teachers were receiving," he continued.

The SIOP professional development provided appropriate strategies that were consistent with the needs of English Learners at Edington. The following summer Mr. Seborg sent both of his English Learner teachers to attend an extended train the trainer course at SIOP. He established a year-long professional development series for the following 2011-2012 school year. The six mainstream teachers and the two English Learner teachers created a bi-monthly session. The first session would present one of the eight components of SIOP. The second session each

month would be used to compare successes and failures of implementation. “It wasn’t easy, but it was necessary,” Mr. Seborg explained. “It helped me create an ongoing, professional conversation to try to meet the needs of our growing population.”

By the end of Mr. Seborg’s tenure at Edington, the population of English Learners had increased by 47 students. The instruction of English Learners was impacted by additional staffing. Mr. Seborg hired a second English Learner teacher to teach English Learners at Marbour College through an intensive English cooperative with Corcoran School District. Identification and registration of English Learners was constant. Finally, Mr. Seborg was able to implement a school-wide professional development series that presented instructional planning, strategies and application, delivery of instruction, and assessment. “This was just a game-changer for us,” explained Mr. Seborg.

“I knew I had to find a strategy that could be employed across all disciplines for all teachers,” explained Mr. Seborg. He acknowledged the district’s support with the SIOP professional development. “I was able to cost-share the expense of having SIOP representatives train our folks,” Mr. Seborg stated. The SIOP model of instruction was peer-reviewed and peer-instructed. Mr. Seborg added, “I knew I could get teacher buy-in if this PD (professional development) was led by their colleagues. Mr. Seborg and his staff discovered there were positive implications of SIOP for all learners.

Beyond the intensive English cooperative at Marbour, English Learners were mainstreamed for related arts, science, and social studies. The teachers were well-trained for planning lessons that made content comprehensible and provided application and reflection for the learning. Mr. Seborg cited that personal accountability and continued follow-up were

necessary for the teachers to successfully meet the educational needs of English Learners at Edington Middle School.

Student Outcomes Pre-Title III

There were students from other countries at Edington Middle School before the passage of Title III. These students were well-educated in their native countries, had no interruption in formal education, and were proficient in English. Therefore, none of these students qualified for English as a Second Language services. Without English Learners at Edington before the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind,* there were no data to analyze student outcomes. The creation of the intensive English cooperative at Marbour College was responsive to the existing EL population in the Corcoran School District although there were no English Learners at Edington School at that time.

Student Outcomes Post-Title III

Title III influenced how Mr. Seborg and the staff at Edington Middle School taught and assessed English Learners in response to mandate for English Learners to meet the same academic standards as non-English Learners. All students were required to meet the same academic standards with expectations for academic performance on or above grade level. The State Department of Education and Corcoran School District communicated accountability goals for English Learners based on projections to Mr. Seborg. In response, Mr. Seborg believed academic achievement was not attainable for English Learners without first addressing academic growth. “I knew that was the ultimate goal, but we had to take small steps before we could run,” Mr. Seborg stated. He believed the English Learners deserved the same opportunities to access education. The mandates for English Learners to meet the same academic standards as non-English Learners and the projections that English Learners would underperform on the state

assessments was Mr. Seborg's rationale for adopting the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) at Edington.

Mr. Seborg studied the Title III federal policy. He wanted to understand the mandates and how those mandates were aligned with achievement and accountability. "Sure, I read it. I read the whole thing, but it was sometime after the law had passed," explained Mr. Seborg. Title III identified English Learners as a special population. He knew accommodations and educational programs had to be modified to meet the diverse needs of English Learners. There were no issues with meeting the requirements for daily English instruction. Mr. Seborg acknowledged that the English program at Marbour satisfied those federal mandates.

Mr. Seborg felt that, although he was not endorsed in English as a Second Language as an educator, he had learned sufficiently through study of the policy and support of the intensive English cooperative at Marbour College to positively affect student outcomes. English Learners improved on test scores in English, math, and social studies every year for the last five years Mr. Seborg was at Edington. The English Learners gained more than one year's growth in those three subjects. There were double digit gains in the percent of English Learners meeting achievement from 2009 to 2014. Most English Learners continued to perform well on the state English as a Second Language test each year. Mr. Seborg believed English Learners would have performed better on the state English as a Second Language without the Title III mandate on meeting the same academic attainment as non-English Learners. "That was just the trade-off," explained Seborg.

Conclusion

Mr. Seborg served 20 years as principal at Edington Middle School in the Corcoran School District before and after the passage of Title III. The English Learner population

increased from zero in 2000 to 50 in 2016. While there was a diverse population of ethnicities at Edington, none of the students qualified for English as a Second Language services. Without English Learners at Edington before the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind,* Exigency for English Learners, resources available, and student outcomes were not addressed.

Following the passage of Title III, the English Learners attended an intensive English cooperative at Marbour College. The cooperative was responsive to the existing English Learner population in the Corcoran School District although there were no English Learners at Edington Middle School at that time. The staff at the center identified and registered all incoming English Learners. English Learners attended the cooperative for a half day of instruction in English as a Second Language and math. Mr. Seborg employed Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol school-wide to meet the instruction, accommodation, and assessment prescriptions under Title III. This collaborative effort developed a common strategy for educating English Learners at Edington Middle School. The results were significant improvements in student growth and achievement in English, math, and social studies.

Summary

Chapter 4 presented the findings of the qualitative data from four school principals respectively. Qualitative data were collected from four principals who each served before and after the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind*. A description of the background for each school principal including biographical information, school data, and active status at the time of the passage of Title III was presented. The four principals have a combined service record in public education of 142 years with 95 years in administration. The four principals served in all three urban, suburban, and rural community settings. Each served distinctively different populations of English Learners, yet each experienced significant growth over the 16-

year period. Each school principal addressed challenges with identification and registration, staffing, scheduling, instruction, and professional development in their respective schools. None of the four school principals had teaching experience in English as a Second Language. Chapter 4 presented the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners through three themes, Exigency for English Learners, availability of resources, and student outcomes.

Chapter 5 concludes the study with a discussion of how school principals saw their role in interpreting and implementing federal policy and the impact of role identity on the education of English Learners. Implications for school principals, district personnel, and policymakers will be presented. Future research opportunities based on the findings of this study and the researcher's reflections will conclude the chapter.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This qualitative narrative inquiry examined the influence of the passage of Title III under *No Child Left Behind* on the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners. Chapter 4 presented findings from the four school principals who served in administration before and after the passage of Title III. Background of the school principal and school data related to population trends of English Learners were provided. From the oral histories of four school principals, three themes emerged: Exigency for English Learners, availability of resources, and student outcomes. Each theme was presented in-case pre-Title III passage and post-Title III passage for each school principal. Findings were presented to answer the study's research question:

1. How did the passage of Title III influence the agency of principals to support the education of English Learners?

Chapter 5 will discuss the role of school principals through the lens of Stryker's Role Identity in interpreting and implementing federal policy to support the education of English Learners. Implications of the study for policymakers, school district personnel, and school principals will be presented. Future research opportunities based on the findings of this study and the researcher's reflections will conclude the chapter.

Discussion

The findings from this study contributed to understanding the role of the school principal in interpreting and implementing Title III mandates to support the education of English Learners. Stryker's role identity provided a theoretical framework to examine how the relatability of role experience, role expectation, and role relationships influenced role actualization. The interaction

of these roles only occurred when there was a reciprocal interaction between self and a phenomenon (Burke, 1980; Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 1980). For school principals, this phenomenon was the interpretation and implementation of Title III for a growing English Learner population. This study considered the influence of principal professional experience, school and student demographics, curriculum and instruction strategies, staffing, scheduling, and district supports on role experience, role expectation, and role relationships.

The study found understanding role experience of school principals through the theoretical framework of Stryker's Role Identity required understanding the background of the school principals and the context of English Learners within the school communities. Collectively, the four school principals served 142 years in public education, 95 of those in school administration. Two of the school principals, Dr. Runyon and Dr. Whitaker, served their respective schools, Slasor High School and Kellner Elementary School, during two different tenures. One principal, Mr. Westheimer, was the only principal to serve his entire career as teacher and administrator at the same school. The fourth school principal, Mr. Seborg, served multiple schools in the Corcoran School District, but served continuously at Edington Middle School before and after the passage of Title III. The four school principals were representative of both elementary (grades K-5) and secondary (grades 6-17). All three community schools (urban, suburban, and rural) were represented in the study.

Three of the four school principals served English Learners populations that represented less than 1% of the total student population in the respective schools before Title III passage. The predominant ethnicity in two of those three schools was Hispanic, immigrating from Mexico and Guatemala. The third school had a diverse, albeit, small population of English Learners from six Asian countries. One principal, Mr. Seborg, had zero English Learners enrolled at Edington

Middle School before Title III passage. All four school principals observed a growth in their English Learner populations exceed 300% in sixteen years. The growth in the English Learner population underscored the diversity in ethnicities and languages among the ELs in what Singer (2004) defined as pre-emerging gateway states for immigration. Two of the four English Learner populations diversified from one ethnicity to multiple ethnicities. One English Learner population remained mostly Hispanic pre- and post-Title III passage. The last of the four English Learner populations was predominantly one ethnicity after the passage of Title III. The differences in the student demographics required school principals to approach English Learners differently. Changes in the context of the English Learner populations influenced communicating about English Learners, availability of resources, and student outcomes for school principals implementing policy mandates under Title III.

The study found that role expectation of school principals affirmed previous findings of Meddaugh (2014) that expected the school principal to serve as the instructional leader of the school. None of the four school principals had taught English Learners or had previous experience with instruction of marginalized student populations. None of the school principals were bilingual. The study found that only one of four school principals met role expectation through instructional leadership that employed an effective delivery model of instruction. Mr. Seborg met the expectation through personal research to attain operational organization for instruction through the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol. Furthermore, Mr. Seborg was equipped to address academic expectations, assessment, and accountability. His approach provided quality instruction and academic successes for all learners and aligned with Meddaugh (2014) who found that instructional decisions are the responsibility of the school principal. Mr.

Seborg acknowledged personal study of Title III policy as related to the school principal's role to support English Learners.

The lack of direct instructional experience with English Learners influenced the school principals' role identity as the instructional leader within the school for two of the remaining three school principals. Notably, Dr. Whitaker's approach was influenced by high academic and English proficiencies of all learners at her school which did not require adoption of an instructional program for English Learners. The needs of English Learners at Whitaker's school were met consistently all learners. The remaining two principals did not meet expectations as instructional leaders. Their lack of training and experience only accentuated the disconnect between federal policy and local implementation and failure in accountability compliance as aligned with previous studies by Taylor and LaCava (2011) and Kendall (2006).

School principal's identity of self was influenced by role relationships as evident in their commitment to education and interaction with other stakeholders to support English Learner education. but did not necessarily translate into establishing behaviors consistent with improving student success. Moss, Gibson, and Dollaride (2014) and Elawar and Lizarraga (2010) found role identity was shaped by the influence of others with professional expertise in a specific field of study. School principals relied on the English Learner teacher who possessed expertise in English Learner education. The English Learner teacher by default was solely responsible for the education of English Learners.

All four school principals cited reliance on the English Learner teacher for translation services and assistance with registration. The degree to which an English Learner teacher could provide professional assistance was influenced by the inability to predict when those services were needed and the classroom instruction schedule for the teacher. All four principals cited

reliance on the English Learner teacher for in-class English language instruction. The fact that English Learner teachers felt ill-equipped to facilitate core academic instruction limited their capacity to provide meaningful professional development for mainstream classroom teachers.

Beyond environmental factors, Burke (1980) and Hogg, Terry, and White (1995) found role identity was molded by a person's set of personal beliefs and values. The interaction between self, that is, the school principal's expected and actual role as instructional leader and the phenomenon, that is, Title III passage, influenced the agency of school principals to support English Learner education. Findings from this study of how school principals successfully interpreted and implemented federal mandates of Title III include exigency for English Learners, availability of resources, and student outcomes.

Exigency for English Learners

During this study, all four school principals acknowledged the importance of the Exigency for English Learners and the first step in supporting the education of English Learners. Exigency for English Learners included identification of the learner, qualification for English as a Second Language services, and registration for school. The inclusion of a language survey to identify which learners were to be tested for English as a Second Language services was implemented by all school principals per Title III mandates. All four school principals articulated improvement in the identification process for English Learners with the inclusion of a universal three-question language survey on the school registration form. If the answer was a language other than English on the language survey, the student was tested for English proficiency and data results informed placement in English as a Second Language services. This finding aligned with previous studies by DeCapau and Marshall (2011) and Fenner (2012) which found identifying English Learners raised awareness of the diverse needs of English Learners and the

importance to provide appropriate instruction. This study found school principals were unable to meet the communicative needs alone but relied heavily on the English Learner teacher and office staff to execute this process of identification.

The study also found that while the language survey improved identification of English Learners, the survey was only as effective as the communication between school principals and parents in a language that the parents could understand. Title III required school principals to communicate with parents of English Learners in a language they could understand. School principals learned that the practice of using students to translate for parents was no longer an acceptable form of translation. As a result, school principals knew that response to this mandate would require delegation of translation services to paraprofessionals or other qualified staff. School principals learned the difficulties associated with identifying and recruiting qualified staff.

Without the use of student translators and without qualified staff at the schools, school principals were responsible to recruit and hire qualified staff to meet the compliance of communicating about English Learners in a language that could be understood by parents. Three of the four school principals recruited qualified staff and paraprofessionals to improve communication about English Learners as required through Title III, and do did so without support from the district. All four school principals admitted challenges to recruit qualified staff included a lack of expertise in whom to hire, a lack of a staff pipeline for recruitment, and a lack of district supports in funding and staffing. These challenges were the same for all school principals regardless of English Learners or languages. The challenges for school principals to address staffing aligned with the findings of Goodman et al. (2011) and Newman, Samimy, and Romstedt (2010) that hindered the school principal's ability to cultivate qualified staff to work

directly with English Learners. The study found the only exception to challenges in communicating about English Learners was when the parents of English Learners were well-educated, English proficient speaking professionals. This was the case for only one principal.

The study found while school principals addressed the Exigency for English Learners through identification in a language survey, registration for school, and parent communication, there still existed a problem in the way Title III identified English Learners. None of the school principals addressed exigency for English Learners for accountability under Title III. Title III said that English Learners were English Learners who were limited English proficient. Once English Learners scored proficient in English, they were no longer identified as English Learners. School principals failed to understand the discrepancy in how English Learners were identified as a result of *No Child Left Behind* and how English Learners differed from other subgroups like African Americans or economically disadvantaged. However, previous studies from Pereia & Gentry (2013), Rossell (2006), and Wright and Pu (2005) found this discrepancy unreliable in data reporting for assessment and achievement accountability as required under Title III. School principals failed to report the discrepancy which highlighted the fact that school principals did not completely understand the importance of identifying English Learners.

Availability of Resources

Throughout the study, school principals cited the availability of resources as the most significant influence on their role to meet the instructional needs of English Learners. School principals were responsible for providing physical space (classroom) for instruction of English as a Second Language, staffing, scheduling, curriculum, and professional development. These resources were required by Title III and as such the school principals were responsible for implementation regardless of school, staffing, or English Learner population. All these resources

were needed to support English Learners prescribed in Title III. The need for school principals to rethink and repurpose classroom space was substantiated by the growth in English Learner population in response to a federal mandate. School principals communicated the need to move English as a Second Language classes once the student enrollment exceeded capacity for seating in storage closets and hallways for instruction.

The growth of the English Learner population necessitated additional staffing allocations and influenced the school principal's role to recruit and hire qualified staff. All four school principals cited challenges to recruit and hire qualified staff were not contingent upon community school settings, grade level, or English Learner population. Instead the study found all school principals were excluded from the hiring process for English Learner teachers. Furthermore, none of the school principals discussed educator preparation providers or tools for recruitment and development of staff. This finding aligned with Goodman et al. (2011) and Newman, Samimy, and Romstedt (2010) who found most districts have no program support for school principals in recruiting, hiring, and cultivating qualified staff to work directly with English Learners.

School principals cited scheduling was a method they employed to manipulate a routine and provide consistency in instructional hours for English Learners. Focused or intentional scheduling was a principal-developed management system to address when English Learners would receive English as a Second Language services. Principals of elementary and middle school faced more barriers to providing consistency in instructional hours as mandated through Title III. Elementary and middle school principals had to balance protected times for reading, inability to pull English Learners during certain classes, and schedule of related arts as barriers to providing instructional resources for English Learners. Once the school principals addressed

scheduling, then compliance with mandates for instructional hours soon followed. School principals at the high school and the intensive English cooperative did not have as many barriers because the English as a Second Language class was an actual scheduled class.

The study found three of the four school principals lacked the ability to effectively address curriculum and instruction strategies germane to English Learner education. This finding aligned with previous research of Cummins (1994, 2000, 2011) which found school principals often lack the understanding of the role of academic language related to curriculum and instruction. Challenges for school principals to provide meaningful instruction for English Learners included lack of personal efficacy, lack of principal preparation, and lack of access to a viable curriculum. Similarly, two of the principals acknowledged minimal understanding of the role of academic language in instructional provision for English Learners. The fact that none of the four school principals had access to funds or grants provided through Title III to purchase instructional materials or resources further limited their role as instructional leader.

In the role of instructional leader, one principal in this study employed Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) as an instructional strategy incorporated by mainstream teachers to support the education of English Learners. The school principal found that integration of a program and the funds to support the implementation aligned with previous studies that cited use of differentiated instruction and comprehensible input as factors that advanced academic achievement of English Learners (Bainbridge & Lasley, 2002; Gunderson, 2008; Menken, 2010; Sheng, Sheng, & Anderson, 2011). The principal's response was to attend conferences and training to improve personal efficacy to serve in the role as instructional leader. In doing so, the principal met expectations of the staff while simultaneously addressing the instructional needs of

English Learners. Furthermore, the efforts of this school principal were the only efforts among the participants in the study that positively impacted English Learner achievement.

The leading reason the school principal sought a structured program was to offset the principal's inadequate preparation to facilitate professional development for mainstream teachers in meeting the educational needs of English Learners. All principals cited they received no preparation or training from third party or education preparation provider. They relied on the English Learner teacher to provide teacher-developed strategies that enhanced understanding the learner and raised cultural awareness of English Learners among the school staff. This finding aligned with Cho and Reich's (2008) recommendation that school principals prioritize the education of English Learners by first raising linguistic and culture awareness of English Learners among staff through professional development.

Beyond the first step of implementing linguistic and multicultural professional development, school principals cited a lack of instructional expertise, shared vision, and district support as factors that contributed to inadequate professional development and cultivation of qualified staff. The lack of instructional expertise aligned with previous studies that found the challenge for school principals to provide professional development was manifested in the need for differentiated instruction to assist English Learners in meeting the same academic standards as non-English Learners (Fenner, 2012; Goodman, Hazelkorn, Bucholz, Duffy, & Kitta, 2011; Newman, Samimy, & Romstedt, 2010; Nordmeyer, 2008). Providing professional development had to move beyond understanding the learner. To effectively foster learning and academic success for English Learners in meeting the same academic standards as non-English Learners, school principals looked beyond the expertise of the English Learner teacher. When school principals sought assistance from the district, the district failed to provide professional

development to address methodologies, strategies, and collaboration that fostered academic success for English Learners. This finding aligned with previous studies that acknowledged districts had no program support to equip school principals to provide effective professional development to cultivate qualified staff (Baecher, Rorimer, & Smith, 2012; Cho & Reich, 2008; Goodman et al., 2011; Newman, Samimy, & Romstedt, 2010). The lack of district support further highlighted the principal's inabilities to provide effective professional development for staff.

Student Outcomes

Ultimately, the research question concentrated on how a school principal can support the education of English Learners. The State Department of Education, the school district, and the school principal acknowledged the measurement of student outcomes as the primary source of academic success. Principals had to address the prescription of Title III mandates that required English Learners to meet the same academic content standards as non-English Learners.

For school principals, the challenge was only perpetuated by the fact that mastery of core academics was in a language for which English Learners had not reached proficiency. All four school principals expressed concern over meeting the same academic standards. The issue was not the expectation as much as the time required to meet the standards. The study found that the principal's goal for English Learners was to learn as much English as fast as possible. The goal to learn as much English as possible was more critical for older learners with limited time to complete high school. This finding conflicted with the previous studies that found academic language proficiency may require five to nine years of study (Crawford, 2004; Hakuta, 2011; Thomas & Collier, 2002; Wiley & Wright, 2004; Willner, Rivera, & Acosta, 2008). School principals failed to demonstrate how to increase learning efficiency of English Learners. They

simply complied with testing requirements acknowledging that English Learners would fail to meet achievement benchmarks and accountability measures.

The shift in federal mandates for accountability under Title III to include English Learners in state report cards of student achievement and accountability influenced the discourse of school principals. School principals realized test scores for English Learners were established as critical data for student achievement and accountability measures. To be considered a disaggregate group for accountability purposes, there had to be more that 30 English Learners within one testing group.

Only one principal addressed disaggregation of data for testing purposes by English Learners. The school principal communicated to guidance staff, office staff, and teachers to be intentional in scheduling English Learners in core academics that were aligned with state testing. The school principals assumed the approach to avoid exceeding the number of English Learners per tested subject to avoid inclusion of English Learner test data on the school's report card. The action of the school principal directly violated the integrity and implementation of Title III prescriptions to increase accountability measures for English Learners and thereby hold schools accountable for student outcomes.

All school principals responded to Title III mandates that required all English Learners to participate in statewide high stakes testing. All four school principals discussed test exemptions that existed before the passage of Title III were no longer applicable. School principals were required to assess English Learners regardless of date of entry into the U.S. or length of stay in the U.S. after the passage of Title III. The study found that all four school principals employed testing accommodations for additional time, flexible scheduling, bilingual dictionaries, and small group pull-out testing environments. The finding aligned with previous studies that

acknowledged the impact of accommodations to provide data representative of the content knowledge of English Learners rather than the English proficiency (Figueroa, 2013; Hornberger & Link, 2012). Concerns raised by school principals regarding the validity of assessments administered in a language for which English Learners failed to demonstrate proficiency was corroborated by the research of Hakuta (2011) and Menken (2009). The school principals were uncertain how or to whom to communicate those concerns of validity and so consequently, high stakes testing in a language for which English Learners failed to demonstrate proficiency continued.

Beyond requirements for all English Learners to participate in high stakes testing, discontinued test exemptions, and inclusion of English Learners as a disaggregate group for the school's accountability, prescriptions for school principals to address annual measurable achievement measures were specified in Title III. The annual measurable achievement measures were designed to monitor growth, proficiency, and adequate yearly progress of English Learners. The study found that none of the school principals were familiar with the annual measurements or the basis for projection and calculation. Two of the school principals indicated they received those measures in an email from the district, however, none had the capacity to address those measures.

Two of the school principals cited interrupted formal education, lack of background knowledge and parental involvement, and deficiencies in early education and socialization as barriers to positive student outcomes. This finding aligned with previous studies that found those barriers adversely affected student outcomes, promotion to the next grade level, high school graduation, and employable skills for the workforce (Menken 2009, 2010; Sheng, Sheng, & Anderson, 2011). School principals acknowledged these barriers were seen specifically with

Hispanic and refugee populations of English Learners as those learners had experienced more interruption to their formal education. The finding linked barriers of academic achievement with certain populations of English Learners based on interrupted formal education and education in their native language aligned with the research findings of DeCapua & Marshall (2010/ 2011), Goldenberg (2008), Hakuta (2011), Herbert and Hauser (1999) and Rossell (2006). Those studies found that academic achievement and achievement gaps between EL and non-English Learners continued to widen as a direct result of interrupted education and Title III prescriptions for student outcomes. School principals were left to consider that English Learners in public education had educational needs that were not being met.

Implications

Based on findings from the study, there are implications for school principals, districts, and policymakers. School principals will continue to be responsible for interpretation and implementation of Title III mandates as related to the education of English Learners. That role is critical to the education of English Learners specifically in pre-emerging gateway states for immigration. The study found districts were unable to respond to school principals' needs for assistance with staffing allocations, curriculum and instruction, professional training and development, and accountability germane to the education of English Learners. Policymakers approach of one-size-fits-all to English Learner education fail to provide the necessary support for school principals. As those policymakers continue to inform education policy, careful consideration of local implementation should be addressed. These implications are considered.

Principal Role and Responsibility

Findings from this study also point to implications regarding principal agency. The role and responsibility of school principals to support the education of English Learners is paramount

in pre-emerging gateway states for immigration. With projections for English Learners' enrollment in public schools to exceed 40% of nationwide student population by 2030, other school principals in these states face a sense of urgency to prepare to meet federal mandates for instruction, assessment, and achievement for English Learners. The implication is that as the population of English Learners increases, so will the expectation that school principals are prepared to provide instructional leadership. The fact remains that principals are ill-prepared. This implication of the need for principal preparation cannot be overstated.

Furthermore, this study offers implications for principal preparation programs. The preparation of school principals begins with the inclusion of coursework and case studies through principal preparation programs and professional degree programs. This inclusion would equip principals related to instruction of English Learners in English as a Second Language. The preparation of school principals must also include understanding and anticipating challenges with specific language groups of English Learners and how those anticipated challenges affect English Learners meeting the same academic standards as non-English Learners. Principal preparation will ease the pressure to comply with the mandates for instruction, identify strategies germane to the educational needs of a marginalized population who continue to underachieve in mainstream classes due to limited English proficiency.

The role of school principal must raise awareness of English Learners, develop instructional and assessment plans to meet the needs of English Learners, and provide accommodations for assessments which, in turn, directly supports the education of English Learners. Implications for school principals is training and procedures on how to effectively accomplish these tasks to ensure proficiency and compliance with federal mandates of Title III need not be overlooked. Policymakers failed to prescribe how school principals can meet these

needs, leaving this to each individual school principals. Understanding how school principals address structural, processes, or organizational leadership to support the education of English Learners may be beneficial for other school principals to replicate with their respective populations.

District Role and Responsibility

District level personnel may also benefit from this study, particularly in implications for professional development. The interaction of role expectation and role actualization for school principals is the feeling of isolation in provision of professional development for mainstream teachers. School principals can no longer rely solely on the expertise of the English Learner teacher for staff development. The growth in the English Learner population is too significant for one person to bear that burden alone. Secondly, the English Learner teacher may lack the instructional expertise to address instruction in core academics. Implications for school principals to negate feelings of isolation and broaden the context of professional development would be the development of a principal network. The principal network could be an online platform where school principals can access policy updates, research curriculum models of instruction, share personal experiences, and request assistance for professional learning and development. The principal network could be hosted jointly by members or principal professional affiliate.

The leadership role of school principals must rely on district supports especially for staffing allocations, professional development, and accountability metrics and analysis. The implication is that school principals can do this alone. Districts need to include school principals in the hiring and staffing process, design staffing protocols if those do not currently exist, and ease the burden to recruit qualified staff to address English Learner education. Districts should

explore partnerships with a local educator provider program (EPPs) to provide training and opportunities for mainstream teachers to earn endorsements for working with English Learners. This partnership with local EPPs could in fact addresses the growing need for qualified staff, create a pipeline for English Leaner teachers, and provide meaningful professional development for school principals and their staffs. These district supports will assume a share of the burden of recruitment of qualified staff and professional development with local school principals. Shared ownership in these processes will positively influence the school principal's role as the instructional leader within a school.

Policymaker Role and Responsibility

Finally, implications for policymakers who recently passed the ninth reauthorization of the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* of 1965. This reauthorization, *Every Student Succeeds Act* of 2015, which replaced the *No Child Left Behind* Act of 2001, continues to mandate provisions and accountability measures related to the education of English Learners. Understanding the needs of local implementation requires appropriate preparation of school principals or some prescription of how to implement those policies may be used to inform future policy. Implications for policymakers may be that they may be unaware of appropriate instruction, assessment, and accommodations for English Learners. If policymakers understand the needs of English Learners, they may more accurately formulate policy can effectively meet the education needs of this diverse and growing population.

Policymakers should consider providing school principals with a framework to implement mandates that facilitate learning for English Learners and still honor principal autonomy in providing for the academic successes and cultural acceptance of English Learners.

The findings from this study will inform policymakers and future education policy which supports the education of English Learners.

Moreover, policymakers should evaluate the attainability of academic achievement goals for English Learners who are tested in a language for which they have failed to demonstrate proficiency. The implication is while policymakers have influenced the identification procedures and registration of English Learners, raised awareness and promoted cultural acceptance of English Learners, and mandated instruction and academic standards for English Learners, policymakers must reconsider how school principals and districts account for English Learner assessment and accountability measures. English Learners are only identified under limited English proficiency for accountability measures. English Learners who demonstrate English proficiency cease to be counted as English Learners. The implication is policymakers adversely affect and mislead accountability measures school principals use to measure student outcomes and successes for English Learners.

Conclusion

The study found school principals who faced the initial mandates through Title III lack the agency to reduce conflicting layers of federal policies, to interpret and implement those policies, and to transform school culture to support the education of English Learners (DeCapua & Marshall, 2010; Gandara & Baca, 2008; Kendall, 2006; Leos & Saavedva, 2010; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007; Rosa, 2010). Thus, the narrative of principals who have approached this challenge both before and after the passage of Title III will add to the literature through the stories of those who have worked to improve learning for English Learners.

The deficiencies in preparation of school principals to meet these needs only accentuates the disconnect between federal policy and local implementation and failure in accountability

compliance. Equally, there are consequences for school principals who fail to implement the provisions within Title III (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011; Wright & Pu, 2005). While there have been studies that address the importance of teacher preparation and collaboration as well as studies that address instructional delivery models for English Learners, a narrative study of school principals' reflections as they struggled to meet the educational needs of English Learners under federal policy mandates can be a powerful addition to the literature, given the increasing population of English Learners and the widening achievement gaps between English Learners and non-English Learners.

Future Research

From the results of this study, recommendations for future studies were considered. This study limited the selection of a site to one pre-emerging gateway state in the southeastern U.S. Singer (2004) identified pre-emerging gateway states for immigration in the southeastern U.S. and the midwestern U.S. as sites where the growth of the English Learner population has exceeded 200% since 2000. A future study might expand the selection of sites to include a different state in the southeastern U.S. or a different state in the midwestern U.S. to examine commonalities and differences among those geographical locations as related to the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners. The future study might select one state from each of the two geographical locations within the U.S. for a cross-state analysis. The expansion and inclusion of other pre-emerging gateway states for immigration could be beneficial to examine the oral histories of school principals in different geographical areas of the U.S.

This study examined four school principals from multiple grade levels, elementary, middle, and high school. The study also included school principals from all three community

settings, urban, suburban, and rural. One principal served as a high school administrator, one served as an elementary school principal, and the remaining two served middle school. One principal in the study represented an urban, one represented a suburban, and two represented rural schools. Based on the data collected through oral histories, instruction, scheduling, and assessments differed across the grade levels. The identification, educational background, English proficiency, and communication differed between rural and urban schools. None of the school principals across all grade levels and community settings successfully addressed instruction or professional development. A future study that narrowed participation within the study to school principals from the same grade level or community setting might be beneficial to examine their agency to support the education of English Learners as influenced by the passage of Title III.

A final recommendation for future studies related to the influence of Title III on English Learner education would employ a case study design to expand the collection of data and support school principals' oral histories beyond multiple, semi-structured interviews. Data collected to retell the oral histories of school principals relied on the validity and reliability of self-reported data collected as well as the honesty and candor of the school principals. Since understanding the school principal's role to interpret and implement federal mandates for identification, instruction, assessment, accommodation, and achievement was the stated purpose of the study, a case study would narrow the focus of participants and broaden the scope of data collection. The researcher did not have the opportunity to observe the practice of school principals in the school environment as the interviews were conducted outside normal school hours. Therefore, a case study that would include collection of documents and materials, examinations of in-school protocols, and observation of interactions between school principals, English Learners, parents,

and teachers could provide a comprehensive study of school principals engaged within the school setting.

Researcher's Reflections

The purpose of this narrative inquiry was to examine the influence of the passage of Title III on the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners. The study was guided by the framework of Stryker's Role Identity. Of interest to this study was the examination of how school principals view what they know, that is, the prescription of Title III mandates, with the pedagogy they use to interpret and implement those mandates. The theoretical framework of role identity offered a lens to examine the interaction of knowledge and pedagogy within a school to support the education of English Learners.

I found all four school principals willing and ready to support English Learner education, to invest time and resources to instruct and assess English Learners, and to build cultural acceptance through relationships and engagement. However, I found school principals lacked the preparation in curriculum design and instructional strategies germane to equip mainstream teachers most directly associated with strategies to support the education of English Learners. This findings aligned with previous studies that found the deficiencies in preparation of school principals to meet these needs only accentuates the disconnect between federal policy and local implementation and failure to comply with accountability measures under Title III (Chenowith, 2015; Cummins, 2011; DeCapau & Marshall, 2011; Kendall, 2006; McGuigan & Hoy, 2006; Murnane, 2007; Newman et al, 2010). Thus, the narrative of principals who have approached this challenge to support English Learner education before and after the passage of Title III added to the literature and future studies for school principals, districts, and policymakers who support the education of English Learners.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A - INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Purpose of Study

To examine how the passage of Title III influenced the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners

Research Question

How did the passage if Title III influence the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners?

Participants

School Principal A

School Principal B

School Principal C

1. Tell me about your pathway to become a school principal over the past n years.
2. Since you were a school principal before the passage of Title III, tell me what education for English Learners looked like before 2001.
3. Explain what education of English Learners looks like now since the passage of Title III.
4. With NCLB's adoption of accountability measures, tell me how accountability shapes what you do as a school principal.
5. So now that you have told me your story, tell me what lessons you have learned.

APPENDIX B- RECRUITMENT EMAIL

Date

School Principal
Address
City, State, Zip Code

RE: Principal Agency and Support of English Learner Education by Byron A. Booker

Dear School Principal A:

I am writing you to let you know about an opportunity to participate in a research study about the Principal's Agency and Support of English Learner Education. This study is being conducted by Byron A. Booker, PhD candidate in Education Leadership and Policy Studies at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. The study will examine the influence of Title III under No Child Left Behind from the perspectives and oral histories of school principals. A purposive sample will be used to select schools within a state in the southeastern U.S. who have experienced significant growth (over 200%) in the population of English Learners since 2000. Consent forms will be emailed to you prior to the first interview and signed at the onset of the first interview. Questions about the interview will be addressed at the onset of the interview.

I am interested in learning how your role and responsibilities implemented these federal mandates, particularly as you provide effective instructional services, provide measurable assessments, and improve student achievement among English Learners. Data will be collected through no more than 5 interviews with each interview 1-2 hours in approximate length. The date and time will be mutually agreed between participant and researcher. Interviews will be

conducted at the school or office of active school principals or a designated office for non-active school principals.

I have served for the past 15 years as an English Learner teacher and administrator with the Knox County and Hawkins County Schools in East Tennessee. Currently, I serve as an administrator at Cherokee High School in the Hawkins County School District. I will follow-up with a second email and a phone call as you are available. Agreement to be contacted or a request for more information does not obligate you to participate in any study.

I may be reached by email at byron.booker@hck12.net or bbooker5@vols.utk.edu. I may be reached by cell phone at 865.924.1026.

Thank you for your time and consideration to participate in this research study.

Best,

Byron A. Booker

APPENDIX C- INFORMED CONSENT

TITLE
Principal Agency and Support of English Learner Education

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR
Byron A. Booker
1143 East 2nd North Street Morristown, TN 37814

INTRODUCTION
You are being given the opportunity to participate in this research study. The purpose of this consent form is to help you decide if you want to be in the research study.

You are invited to participate in a research study about principal agency and support of English Learner education. With projections for English Learners' enrollment to exceed 40% nationwide for public schools by 2030, the role and responsibility of the school principal to meet the educational needs of English Learners must be examined. The purpose of this study is to examine how the passage of Title III under No Child Left Behind (2001) influenced the agency of school principals to support the education of English Learners. How you have addressed the instruction, assessment, and student achievement among English Learners is significant to other school principals who work to support English Learners.

INFORMATION ABOUT PARTICIPANTS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE STUDY
You will be asked to participate in a series of interviews (no more than 5). The approximate length of each interview will be 1-2 hours per interview. The interviews will be conducted in person at an agreed upon location, date, and time. You will be asked questions about your pathway to become a school principal, education and support of English Learners before and after Title III, accountability mandates, and lessons learned. Approximately 3-5 school principals will be participating in this study from multiple public schools of similar community type setting based on federal government guidelines.

RISKS
There is a risk that your private identifiable information may be seen by people not involved in the research such as if a researcher's computer is stolen or an electronic database is hacked. However, I will use very careful security measures such as locks on file cabinets and computer passwords to minimize the chance that any unauthorized persons might see your confidential information.

You will be asked for permission to audio record the interviews. Having your voice recorded may make you feel uncomfortable. You may take a break during the interview as needed. Confidentiality of the audio recordings and audio files will be maintained by the researcher. These files will be kept on the researcher's personal computer that is password protected and external hard drive. The audio recordings and files will be destroyed one year after completion of the study.

BENEFITS
The benefit of the study is to tell your story of how you have supported the education of English Learners, and how that support was influenced with the passage of Title III. Your story will share how you have addressed elements of English Learner education through instruction, assessment, and achievement. In doing so, other school principals may have a better understanding of how to prepare English Learners to enter and participate in a school setting and develop the language proficiency necessary to achieve the same standards as their native speaking peers. School principals will further benefit from your participation in this study by understanding how English Learners may impact school level staffing, curriculum, and professional development needs for non-EL trained personnel. Participants may not directly benefit from participating in the study.

CONFIDENTIALITY
Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. Your identity will be assigned a pseudonym. Your school will be coded with "School" and a letter, example, School B. The list connecting your name to this pseudonym and school code will be kept in a locked file in the faculty supervisor's office. Consent forms will be kept confidentially in a locked cabinet in the Department of Education Leadership and Policy Studies at The University of Tennessee for 3 years after completion of my study and will be accessible only to research personnel. Your name will not be used in any report or publication. Your research information may be used for future research by the researchers of this study or shared with others without obtaining additional informed consent. All identifiable information will be removed before any future use by any researcher.

QUESTIONS
If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, (or you experience adverse effects as a result of participating in this study,) you may contact the researcher, Byron A. Booker, at bbooker5@vols.utk.edu and 865.924.1026 or his committee chair, Dr. Pamela Angelle at pangelle@ut.edu and 865.974.4139. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact the University of Tennessee IRB Compliance Officer at utkirb@utk.edu or 865.974.7697.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL
Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decline to participate without penalty. There is no penalty or loss of benefit for choosing not to participate. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be discarded.

FUTURE CONTENT
If I lose contact with you during the study for any reason (your phone number changes; your physical or email address changes; you are not responding to our attempts to contact, you about your continued participation. I will attempt to find you or contact you in the following ways:

- The phone number(s) you provided to us will be called, but if you are not the person who answers, we will not say the title of the study or the fact that you are/were participating in a study.
- Certified mail will be sent to you requesting that you call me.

- A letter will be sent to the address(es) you provided to me, but neither the return address nor any markings on the envelope will identify the title of the study or the fact that you are/were participating in a study.

Put your initials on one of the lines below:

_____I CAN attempt to find/contact you in the above ways.

_____I MAY NOT attempt to find/contact you in the above ways.

CONSENT OF SUBJECT

You have read or have had read to you a description of the research study as outlined above. The investigator or his/her representative has explained the study to you and has answered all the questions you have at this time. You knowingly and freely choose to participate in the study. A copy of this consent form will be given to you for your records.

I have read the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study.

Participant's Name (printed) _____
Participant's Signature _____ Date _____

VITA

Byron Ashley Booker's 16 years in public education include roles as teacher and administrator within the United States and internationally. Byron serves as Assistant Principal for College, Career, and Technical Education at Cherokee High School in Hawkins County Schools, Tennessee with previous administrative service with the Knox County Schools, Tennessee. He began as an itinerant English as a Second Language teacher for all grade levels from kindergarten to 12th grade, but taught the majority of his years at Knox Central High School. His substantive experience in core academics/ ESL collaborative design and instructional strategies has been recognized through local, regional, and national presentations and publications. In 2012 Byron was selected as a Leadership Academy Fellow with The University of Tennessee's Center for Educational Leadership. Byron was recognized as the 2012 Tennessee Teacher of the Year. Byron taught English abroad during summer semesters in Japan, China, and Russia. Since 2009, he has served as an Adjunct Professor in Graduate Studies in Education at Carson Newman University.

Byron earned his Doctor of Philosophy degree in Education Leadership and Policy Studies from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville in May 2020, his master's degree in English as a Second Language from Carson-Newman College in 2004, and his bachelor's degree in Political Science from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville in 1993. A second career educator, Byron served in state and local government for nearly 10 years, most notably as a staff member for former Tennessee Governor, The Honorable Donald K. Sundquist.

A native of East Tennessee, Byron resides in Morristown, Tennessee with his wife Heidi, stepdaughter Parker, and dog Rockie.